National Library of Canada
Acquisitions and Bibliographic Services Branch
395 Wellington Street
Ottawa, Ontario
K1A 0N4

Bibliothèque nationale du Canada
Direction des acquisitions et des services bibliographiques
395, rue Wellington
Ottawa (Ontario)
K1A 0N4

Your file Votre référence

Our file Notre référence

NOTICE

The quality of this microform is heavily dependent upon the quality of the original thesis submitted for microfilming. Every effort has been made to ensure the highest quality of reproduction possible.

If pages are missing, contact the university which granted the degree.

Some pages may have indistinct print especially if the original pages were typed with a poor typewriter ribbon or if the university sent us an inferior photocopy.

Reproduction in full or in part of this microform is governed by the Canadian Copyright Act, R.S.C. 1970, c. C-30, and subsequent amendments.

AVIS

La qualité de cette microforme dépend grandement de la qualité de la thèse soumise au microfilmage. Nous avons tout fait pour assurer une qualité supérieure de reproduction.

S'il manque des pages, veuillez communiquer avec l'université qui a conféré le grade.

La qualité d'impression de certaines pages peut laisser à désirer, surtout si les pages originales ont été dactylographiées à l'aide d'un ruban usé ou si l'université nous a fait parvenir une photocopie de qualité inférieure.

La reproduction, même partielle, de cette microforme est soumise à la Loi canadienne sur le droit d'auteur, SRC 1970, c. C-30, et ses amendements subséquents.

Canada

UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

CONSTRAINTS ON EFFECTIVENESS OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS AND THEIR PRINCIPALS

BY

DONNA MAUREEN SMITH ©

A thesis submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY.

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

Edmonton, Alberta
FALL, 1993

National Library of Canada

Acquisitions and Bibliographic Services Branch

395 Wellington Street
Ottawa, Ontario
K1A 0N4

Bibliothèque nationale du Canada

Direction des acquisitions et des services bibliographiques

395, rue Wellington
Ottawa (Ontario)
K1A 0N4

Your file *Votre référence*

Our file *Notre référence*

The author has granted an irrevocable non-exclusive licence allowing the National Library of Canada to reproduce, loan, distribute or sell copies of his/her thesis by any means and in any form or format, making this thesis available to interested persons.

L'auteur a accordé une licence irrévocable et non exclusive permettant à la Bibliothèque nationale du Canada de reproduire, prêter, distribuer ou vendre des copies de sa thèse de quelque manière et sous quelque forme que ce soit pour mettre des exemplaires de cette thèse à la disposition des personnes intéressées.

The author retains ownership of the copyright in his/her thesis. Neither the thesis nor substantial extracts from it may be printed or otherwise reproduced without his/her permission.

L'auteur conserve la propriété du droit d'auteur qui protège sa thèse. Ni la thèse ni des extraits substantiels de celle-ci ne doivent être imprimés ou autrement reproduits sans son autorisation.

ISBN 0-315-88347-2

Canada

UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

RELEASE FORM

NAME OF AUTHOR: DONNA M. SMITH

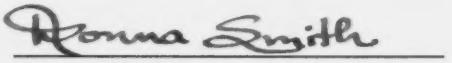
TITLE OF THESIS: CONSTRAINTS ON EFFECTIVENESS OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS AND THEIR PRINCIPALS

DEGREE: DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

YEAR THIS DEGREE GRANTED: 1993

Permission is hereby granted to the University of Alberta Library to reproduce single copies of this thesis and to lend or sell such copies for private, scholarly or scientific research purposes only.

The author reserves all other publication and other rights in association with the copyright in the thesis, and except as hereinbefore provided neither the thesis nor any substantial portion thereof may be printed or otherwise reproduced in any material form whatever without the author's prior written permission.



10711 - 48 Street
Edmonton, Alberta
T6A 2B6

October 8, 1993

UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research for acceptance, a thesis entitled CONSTRAINTS ON EFFECTIVENESS OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS AND THEIR PRINCIPALS submitted by DONNA MAUREEN SMITH in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY.

E. A. Holdaway

K. L. Ward

W. G. Maynes

E. Callan

D. M. Richards

F. D. Oliva (External Examiner)

Date: 4 October 1993

Abstract

The major purpose of this descriptive/analytical study was to explore the perceptions of junior high school principals with respect to constraints on their leadership effectiveness and the overall effectiveness of their schools. Another purpose was to examine the relationships which exist among factors relevant to both leadership effectiveness and school effectiveness. A third purpose was to analyze the relationships between constraints on leadership effectiveness and school effectiveness.

Data were collected using two instruments: (a) a questionnaire completed by 87% of the 108 junior high principals in Alberta and (b) an interview conducted with 10 of these principals. Information gained was analyzed using various statistical techniques and content analysis of responses.

The factors most frequently listed as constraints on leadership effectiveness were inadequate funding, time taken dealing with problem students, and inadequate physical facilities. The factors considered to be the least important constraints on leadership effectiveness were lack of support from the system supervisor, too few students, and the principal's teaching load.

The following factors were the most frequently listed constraints on school effectiveness: (a) financial support by the province, (b) financial support by the system, and (c) ineffective leadership in the province. The following factors were considered to be the least important constraints on school effectiveness: (a) the amount of staff turnover, (b) the amount of time spent per day on core subjects, and (c) the overemphasis on technology.

Relationships among responses to factors yielded a great deal of information about the association between respondent characteristics and perceptions of constraints. Perceptions of respondents regarding constraints on leadership effectiveness were substantially different based on the number of years served as a principal, the type of school system, the number of students, and the number of years the school had been in operation. With regard to perceived constraints on school effectiveness, differences among response groups occurred most frequently according to the type of school system, the number of years of experience as a principal in the school, the number of years the school has been in operation, and the highest degree obtained by the principal.

This study identified several implications for future research which could involve similar schools in other provinces, schools with different grade structures, and other respondent groups such as teachers or parents. Constraint-resolution strategies recommended by respondents included redistribution of current budget allocations, initiation of business partnerships to supplement funds, revision of principal placement and promotion policies, design of school behavior plans, and modification of student discipline policies. The performance of school leaders was confirmed to be critical to the effectiveness of their schools. The theoretical framework proved to be an appropriate basis for analysis of junior high school restructuring and leadership development.

The results of this study substantiate the exigency for reflective, critical examination of constraints and thoughtful identification of resolutions for enhanced effectiveness.

Acknowledgements

I am tremendously appreciative of the support and assistance provided by people who enhanced the success of this research study.

I benefitted greatly from the wise counsel and experiential advice of Dr. E. A. Holdaway, the Chairman of my advisory committee. He inspired me to seek excellence through perseverance, dedication to integrity, and an open-minded approach to research. His personal advocacy for high standards inspired my efforts and encouraged me throughout every aspect of this study.

I would also like to recognize the valuable suggestions offered by other members of my advisory committee, Dr. Bill Maynes and Dr. Ken Ward. Special recognition is also extended to Dr. Frank Oliva, who served as the external examiner for this study and Dr. Don Richards, who served as committee chairman and examiner. The invaluable advice and assistance provided by Mrs. C. Prokop in the analysis of the data was greatly appreciated and was integral to the completion of this study.

I am indeed indebted to the principals throughout Alberta who participated by offering their time, ideas, and best wishes with this study. It was a great pleasure to work with such dedicated, talented professionals.

Finally, I wish to thank my mother, Mrs. Leola Loughlin, and my husband, Mr. Jim Smith, who have continued to provide the personal encouragement and support necessary for me to complete this study. I am truly blessed to have had the benefit of their inspirational assistance and their love.

Table of Contents

Chapter		Page
1	OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY	1
	Background to the Study	2
	Purposes of the Study	6
	Significance of the Study	7
	Theoretical Significance	7
	Practical Significance	8
	Definitions of Terms	10
	Junior High School	10
	School Effectiveness	10
	Perception	11
	Leadership	12
	Constraint	13
	Discrepancy Theory	15
	Research Questions	15
	Leadership Effectiveness Questions	16
	School Effectiveness Questions	17
	Assumptions	17
	Limitations of the Study	18
	Delimitations of the Study	20
	Organization of the Thesis	20

Chapter Page

2 REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE 22

Organizational and School Effectiveness 22

Introduction 22

Influence of Perception in Analyzing Organizational Effectiveness 22

Theoretical Models of Organizational Effectiveness 24

Evolution of Research on School Effectiveness 25

Criteria for Assessing School Effectiveness 33

Potential Constraints on School Effectiveness 37

Leadership and Leadership Effectiveness 40

Introduction 40

Role of Perception in Analyzing Leadership Effectiveness 40

Theoretical Models of Effective Leadership 41

Evolution of Research on Leadership Effectiveness in School Organizations 48

Criteria for Assessing Leadership Effectiveness 55

Potential Constraints on Leadership Effectiveness 60

Junior High Schools 64

Introduction 64

Characteristics of Adolescents 65

Strategies for Meeting Adolescent Needs in Junior High Schools 66

Evolution of Research on Effective Junior High Schools 67

Chapter Page

2 (Cont'd)

Conceptual Framework 70

Summary 73

3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY 79

The Research Instruments 79

The Questionnaire 79

The Semi-Structured Interview 80

The Pilot Study 82

Validity of the Instruments 83

Reliability of the Instruments 84

Data Collection 85

Timeline 85

The Population 85

The Interview Sample 86

Distribution and Collection of Questionnaires 86

Data Analysis 88

Statistical Analysis of the Questionnaire Data 89

Content Analysis of the Written Responses From the Questionnaire 90

Analysis of Interview Data 90

Summary 91

Chapter Page

4 PROFILE OF THE RESPONDENTS 92

Personal Characteristics of the Questionnaire Respondents 92

Professional Characteristics of the Questionnaire Respondents 92

Number of Years Served as Principal 93

Number of Years Served as Principal of Current School 94

Highest Qualification of the Principal 95

Organizational Characteristics of the Schools Involved in the Questionnaire 95

Age of the School 96

Type of School System 97

Type of Community 98

Number of Students 98

Profile of Principals Participating in Interviews 99

Summary 102

5 CONSTRAINTS ON LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS 104

Variables Perceived as the Most Important Constraints on Leadership Effectiveness 105

Other Variables Perceived as Constraints on Leadership Effectiveness 107

Variables Perceived as Minor Constraints on Leadership Effectiveness 110

Analysis of Interview Data Related to Leadership Effectiveness 110

Criteria for Judging Effectiveness as a School Leader 112

Chapter Page

5 (Cont'd)

Constraints on Goal Attainment by the School Leader 113

Strategies for Resolving Constraints on Leadership Effectiveness 115

Relationship Between Results of Research and Literature Review 116

Summary 118

6 CONSTRAINTS ON SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS 122

Variables Not Perceived as Constraints on School Effectiveness .. 122

Variables Perceived as Major Constraints on School Effectiveness 125

Analysis of Interview Data Related to School Effectiveness 128

Establishment of School Priorities 128

Criteria for Judging Effectiveness of Schools 131

Strategies for Resolving Constraints on School Effectiveness .. 132

Illustrations from School Settings 133

Relationship Between Results of Research and Literature Review 135

Summary 136

7 RELATIONSHIPS AMONG DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES AND CONSTRAINTS ON PRINCIPAL EFFECTIVENESS 139

Age of the Principal 140

Total Number of Years Served as a Principal 142

Years of Experience as a Principal in the School 144

Chapter Page

7 (Cont'd)

Age of the School 146

Highest Qualification Earned by the Principal 149

Type of School System 151

Type of Community in Which the School Is Located 155

Number of Students Enrolled in the School 157

Summary 160

8 RELATIONSHIPS AMONG DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES AND CONSTRAINTS ON SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS 164

Age of the Principal 164

Total Number of Years Served as a Principal 166

Years of Experience as a Principal in the School 168

Age of the School 171

Highest Qualification Earned by the Principal 174

Type of School System 176

Type of Community in Which the School Is Located 180

Number of Students Enrolled in the School 183

Summary 185

9 SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, AND CONCLUSIONS 189

Introduction 189

Overview of the Study 189

Chapter Page

9 (Cont'd)

Constraints on Leadership Effectiveness 189

Relationships Among Demographic Variables and Constraints on Leadership Effectiveness 196

Constraints on School Effectiveness 201

Relationships Among Demographic Variables and Constraints on School Effectiveness 203

Leadership Effectiveness and School Effectiveness 208

Implications 211

Theory and Research 211

Practice 212

Theoretical Framework 215

Conclusions and Personal Reflections 217

BIBLIOGRAPHY 223

APPENDICES 235

APPENDIX A Questionnaire for Principals 235

APPENDIX B Interview Schedule for Principals 240

APPENDIX C Cover Letter--Questionnaire 246

APPENDIX D Cover Letter--Interview 249

APPENDIX E Follow-Up Letter--Questionnaire 251

APPENDIX F Correspondence 253

List of Tables

Table		Page
2.1	The Six Most Effective Aspects and the Six Most Important Criteria for Judging Overall Effectiveness of Junior High Schools, as Obtained by Sroypan (1988)	32
2.2	The Six Most Effective and the Six Most Important Criteria for Judging Overall Effectiveness of Principals, as Obtained by Sroypan (1988)	33
4.1	Frequency, Percentage Frequency, and Cumulative Percentage Frequency Distributions of Personal Characteristics of Principals	93
4.2	Frequency, Percentage Frequency, and Cumulative Percentage Frequency Distributions for Years Served as Principal	94
4.3	Frequency, Percentage Frequency, and Cumulative Percentage Frequency Distributions of Years Served as Principal of Current School	95
4.4	Frequency, Percentage Frequency, and Cumulative Percentage Frequency Distributions of Highest Qualification of Principals	96
4.5	Frequency, Percentage Frequency Distribution, and Cumulative Percentage Distribution of Age of the School	97
4.6	Frequency and Percentage Frequency Distribution of Types of School Systems	98
4.7	Frequency, Percentage Frequency, and Cumulative Frequency of Types of Communities	99
4.8	Frequency, Percentage Frequency, and Cumulative Percentage Frequency of Number of Students Enrolled in Schools	99
4.9	Frequencies of Personal and Professional Characteristics of Principals in the Interview Sample	101
4.10	Frequencies of Organizational Characteristics of Schools in the Interview Sample	102

Table | Page

5.1 Percentage Frequency Distribution and Means of Importance of Variables as Constraints on Leadership Effectiveness 111

6.1 Percentage Frequency Distribution and Means of Importance of Variables as Constraints on School Effectiveness 123

7.1 Means of Extent to Which Factors Were Perceived to Be Constraints on Effectiveness of Principals (Classified by Age of the Principals) 141

7.2 Means of Extent to Which Factors Were Perceived to Be Constraints on Effectiveness of Principals (Classified by Number of Years Served as a Principal) 143

7.3 Means of Extent to Which Factors Were Perceived to Be Constraints on Effectiveness of Principals (Classified by Years of Experience as a Principal in the School) 145

7.4 Means of Extent to Which Factors Were Perceived to Be Constraints on Effectiveness of Principals (Classified by Age of the School) 147

7.5 Means of Extent to Which Factors Were Perceived to Be Constraints on Effectiveness of Principals (Classified by Highest Qualification of Principals) 150

7.6 Means of Extent to Which Factors Were Perceived to Be Constraints on Effectiveness of Principals (Classified by Type of School System) 152

7.7 Means of Extent to Which Factors Were Perceived to Be Constraints on Effectiveness of Principals (Classified by Type of Community in Which School Is Located) 156

7.8 Means of Extent to Which Factors Were Perceived to Be Constraints on Effectiveness of Principals (Classified by Number of Students Enrolled in the School) 158

8.1 Means of Extent to Which Factors Were Perceived to Be Constraints on Effectiveness of Schools (Classified by Age of Principals) 165

Table | Page

8.2 Means of Extent to Which Factors Were Perceived to Be Constraints on Effectiveness of Schools (Classified by Number of Years Served as a Principal) 167

8.3 Means of Extent to Which Factors Were Perceived to Be Constraints on Effectiveness of Schools (Classified by Number of Years Served as a Principal in the School) 169

8.4 Means of Extent to Which Factors Were Perceived to Be Constraints on Effectiveness of Schools (Classified by Age of the School) 172

8.5 Means of Extent to Which Factors Were Perceived to Be Constraints on Effectiveness of Schools (Classified by Highest Qualification of Principals) 175

8.6 Means of Extent to Which Factors Were Perceived to Be Constraints on Effectiveness of Schools (Classified by Type of School System) 177

8.7 Means of Extent to Which Factors Were Perceived to Be Constraints on Effectiveness of Schools (Classified by Type of Community in Which School Is Located) 182

8.8 Means of Extent to Which Factors Were Perceived to Be Constraints on Effectiveness of Schools (Classified by Number of Students Enrolled in the School) 184

List of Figures

Figure Page

2.1 Formulation of Effective/Reflective Practice in School Organizations 72

Chapter 1

Overview of the Study

Although junior high schools have existed in North America for several decades, a limited amount of research has been conducted to provide specific knowledge about this particular type of educational organization. If we assume that characteristics, policies, personnel, and programs vary little from elementary or senior high settings, this is an appropriate state of affairs. On the other hand, if we consider that the junior high setting may differ markedly from other levels, then it is an area of study which is worthy of further investigation. According to the experience of many educators in the field, junior high schools appear to be different from elementary and senior high schools with respect to their clientele, program of studies, administrative leadership, and staffing requirements. Such a view is supported by various authors including George (1990), MacIver (1990), and Toepfer (1990).

Recent attention to the importance of leadership in the organizational context of junior high schools suggested that an examination of various leadership behaviors would be beneficial. Theories of effective leadership, such as Fiedler's Contingency Theory, House's Path-Goal Model, and the Vroom and Yetton Situational Model which were described by Johns (1987), provided valuable insight into improving overall school effectiveness and identifying potential constraints on administrators which reduce productivity and personal effectiveness.

A critical analysis of these two areas was expected to provide useful information about constraints on the leadership qualities and the characteristics

that are considered to be most effective in the junior high school setting. Further, it was expected that the results of such an analysis would assist principals to implement the characteristics of effective schools and effective leadership that are highlighted in related literature.

Background to the Study

The theme of school effectiveness has received a great deal of attention by researchers in the past two decades, stemming from the original focus on the effectiveness of various structural arrangements to the more recent focus on the network of situational elements and specified criteria.

Educators have gained ample information regarding indicators of effective leadership from such researchers as Fiedler and Garcia (1987), Frase and Hetzel (1990), Kouzes and Posner (1990), Manasse (1985), Smith and Piele (1989), and Yukl (1981). Further, several researchers have provided insight into effective school organizations, including Cuban (1983), Goodlad (1983), Purkey and Smith (1983), and Rutter, Maughan, Mortimore, Ouston, and Smith (1979). However, the recent thrust toward restructuring schools proposed by authors such as Keefe, Jenkins, and Hersey (1992) and LePage (1987) indicated that little of this information has been implemented on a permanent basis. Various constraints exist to prevent principals and school stakeholders from applying and implementing those qualities considered by researchers and evaluators to be indicators of effective education. Few studies regarding constraints on leadership and school effectiveness have been conducted: Johnson (1988) and Murphy (1987) focussed on the elementary school setting

while Sroypan (1988) concentrated on the junior high school level. Although it is clearly a unique segment of the public education system, a minimal number of researchers have focussed specifically on effectiveness of junior high schools. Those who have written extensively in this area include Alexander (1988), Alexander and George (1981), Capelluti and Stokes (1991), Garvin (1986), Jackson (1990), and Toepfer (1990). The recent desire to determine the most appropriate grade configurations has been a focus of research for Cawelti (1988), George (1990), Lounsbury (1990), and Maynard (1986). The background research marks an interest in this area and highlights the need for additional research in junior high school settings.

Manitoba Education and Training (1992) has conducted a secondary school review in the past two years which resulted in changes to the organizational structure of their school system. Some school divisions are starting to incorporate programs for kindergarten to grade 4, grades 5 to 8, and grades 9 to 12 (or Senior levels 1 to 4) in the same facility; the majority of the urban school divisions continue to have students in kindergarten to grade 6, grades 7 to 9, and grades 7 to 12. Schools that already housed grades 9 to 12 (Seniors 1 to 4) started the revised credit system in 1992. With regard to their middle years program for grades 5 to 8, the strategic plan proposed by government officials highlighted the need for a focus on communication, critical thinking, decision-making, and study skills. However, it was suggested that no perfect pattern of school organization, environment, or programs would meet all needs of "middle year" students.

McIntosh (1991) also proposed the establishment of an alternative grade

organization for Edmonton Public Schools in future neighborhoods; he described a plan to develop a two-tier grade configuration involving kindergarten to grade 8 in one facility and grades 9 to 12 in another. System consultants conducted a cross-Canada survey of school boards with regard to grade organization which confirmed that the philosophy and approach to adolescent programming was a more important determinant of effectiveness than grade configuration. However, results of this survey did have important ramifications for design and construction and long-term use of facilities.

Schools can be classified as organizations because they are coordinated groups of individuals who assemble to achieve official provincial goals and operative system goals in an effective manner. Organizational effectiveness is a multi-faceted variable which includes different characteristics; therefore, no single, clear definition exists for this term. Certain researchers have defined it in terms of goal achievement; Steers (1977) for example, indicated that effectiveness has a variety of meanings according to the multiple goals possessed by individuals. Few of these researchers have provided a specific definition of the term "school effectiveness"; instead, they have chosen to list criteria which are evident in schools that have been identified as being effective and successful according to different stakeholders. Johnson (1988), for example, defined overall school effectiveness as "a composite of performance on all criteria used in assessing effectiveness in the various organizational dimensions" (p. 15). Sroypan (1988) used a comprehensive definition which included diverse concepts of the broader term "organizational effectiveness" or "the extent to which any organization as a

social system, given certain resources and means, fulfills its objectives without incapacitating its means and resources and without placing undue strain upon its members" (p. 9). Similarly, authors such as Purkey and Smith (1983) and Ratsoy (1983) suggested that the concept of school effectiveness includes criteria such as goal achievement, academic success, curriculum articulation, maximized learning time, and instructional leadership.

For purposes of this research, I have considered the characteristics identified by Rutter et al. (1979) as those which are typically found in effective schools: instructional supervision, effective leadership, a positive school climate, goal orientation, a school-wide emphasis on basic skills, high expectations, frequent assessment of student progress, and parental involvement. These criteria became part of the conceptual framework as theories of practice or perceptions about the characteristics of school effectiveness.

The concept of perception is germane to any analysis of effectiveness. According to Johns (1987), perception is the "process of interpreting the messages of our senses to provide order and meaning to the environment" (p. 81). One's personal interpretation of reality often determines the actions of an individual, rather than reality itself. Johns's definition, though deceptively simple, was instrumental to this analysis of school effectiveness.

Another concept, constraints, formed the foundation for this research in that analysis of potential constraints should reveal possible barriers to school and leadership effectiveness within the school setting. Steers (1977) alluded to the importance of identifiable constraints such as money, technology, and personnel

which could inhibit goal optimization and organizational effectiveness.

Eastcott, Holdaway, and Kuiken (1974) distinguished between constraints which are pervasive or "have a relatively consistent constraining influence on the administrator regardless of the administrative task" (p. 43) and issue-specific constraints, which are related to particular tasks or aspects of the role and are determined by individual perceptions. They reinforced the fact that principals could resort to satisficing behavior "to optimize desirable outcomes . . . while reducing any undesirable outcomes resulting from constraints" (p. 44). They highlighted the need for additional research regarding the outcomes of constraints, the synergistic impact on administrative action, and the recommended strategies for constraint resolution. To date, limited research has been conducted in these areas.

Purposes of the Study

This study had three primary purposes: (a) to examine the perceptions of junior high principals in Alberta with regard to constraints on school effectiveness, (b) to examine the perceptions of junior high principals in Alberta with regard to constraints on their leadership effectiveness, and (c) to explore the relationships between school effectiveness and principal effectiveness for junior high schools in Alberta. A secondary purpose was to explore strategies that principals employ to resolve the results of these constraints on their school and leadership effectiveness. Another purpose was to clarify the specific elements of effectiveness as they pertain to leadership and school operation at the junior high level.

As indicated previously, a notable amount of research has been conducted regarding leadership effectiveness in educational settings and effectiveness of school organizations; this study examined these issues by exploring constraints related specifically to the junior high setting. The integral role of the principal with regard to school effectiveness has been strongly documented in the literature by such authors as Buell (1992), Lane (1992), Manasse (1985), Purkey and Smith (1983), Renihan and Renihan (1984), and Rutter et al. (1979); this relationship was examined in this study by analyzing perceptions of junior high school principals. The theories outlined by Eastcott, Holdaway, and Kuiken (1974) provided a base of knowledge specific to the principalship of schools regarding constraints on effective leadership and organizational practices.

Significance of the Study

The significance of this study is described from the perspectives of theory and practice.

Theoretical Significance

The results of this study were expected to make a contribution to the literature regarding school effectiveness, principal effectiveness, and the junior high school setting. A limited number of studies have provided information about constraints related to actual and preferred effectiveness; this research was the focus of work by Johnson (1988), Murphy (1987), and Sroypan (1988). Furthermore, results of this research have not provided a detailed description of the application of research regarding constraints on the junior high setting. As Sroypan (1988) pointed out, "junior high schools are obviously different from

senior high schools in terms of such aspects as the maturity and attitudes of students, and specialization in subjects" (p. 6). This study was expected to advance the theoretical knowledge regarding junior high schools and to provide information for comparison to the elementary and senior high settings. In this regard, results were expected to be useful in providing information relevant to the current middle schools debate between supporters of middle schools and supporters of an elementary-junior high school organization.

Practical Significance

The importance of the leader in relation to organizational effectiveness has been highlighted in studies conducted by Boyer (1988), Manasse (1985), Peters and Waterman (1982), Purkey and Smith (1983), Rutter et al. (1979), and Steers (1977). Focussing more specifically on the junior high setting, the role of the administrator is clearly becoming more demanding as a result of the increasing expectations of society, the varied responsibilities associated with this role, the unique characteristics of adolescence, and the increased attention paid to school effectiveness and accountability. The following authors have commented on the increased complexity of the administrative role: Alexander and George (1981), Capelluti and Stokes (1992), Cawelti (1988), George (1990), and Toepfer (1990). Research regarding school effectiveness has provided a wealth of information which can be used to identify characteristics considered to be essential for effective schools and strategies for restructuring schools for increased productivity. An investigation of the relevance and appropriateness of this information and potential constraints upon implementation of recommended practices for the

junior high setting was conducted to provide insight for practitioners, central office administrators, and elected officials. This knowledge could help to improve the quality of program provided for students and the level of achievement at the junior high setting.

With regard to the effectiveness of principals, Sroypan (1988) found that a large discrepancy existed between the degree of effectiveness for the "actual performance" by the principal and the "perceived importance" according to the principal. Certain constraints appear to exist which prevent principals from developing, implementing, and actualizing the qualities which they consider to be most effective in their leadership roles. With regard to school effectiveness, a large discrepancy also appears to exist between characteristics perceived to be important for effective schools and the actual qualities evident in junior high schools. Considering issues such as the foregoing, this study was expected to provide information regarding the importance of potential constraints on effectiveness and strategies used to overcome these constraints which are inherent to the junior high level. An examination of these coping mechanisms derived from the analysis of interviews with principals in this study was expected to provide information regarding daily administrative performance. In addition, findings could be of interest to administrators at elementary and secondary levels, in that certain issues related to effectiveness are generic to school leadership and organization at all levels. It was anticipated that results of this study could furnish information for preparation of pre-service and in-service administrative training programs.

Goldsborough (1992) reported that the Canadian Education Association had planned to conduct an extensive research project for Employment and Immigration Canada which would analyze secondary schools across Canada that had been identified as exemplary. The purpose of this study was to determine how the quality of the learning environment promotes student achievement and retention. The results of this study will provide a great deal of information about effective school characteristics which may be of value to the Canadian Education Association study.

Definitions of Terms

The following definitions of terms were used in this study.

Junior High School

"Junior high school" refers only to schools with students in grades 7, 8, and 9 which are providing instructional programs authorized by the provincial Department of Education.

School Effectiveness

School effectiveness is a multidimensional variable which includes various characteristics; therefore, no single, clear definition exists for this term. Certain researchers defined it in terms of goal achievement, while others focussed on the organizational contexts. Johnson (1988) defined school effectiveness as "the attainment of a school on each criterion by which success is judged. Overall effectiveness was regarded as a composite of performance on all criteria used in assessing effectiveness in the various organizational dimensions" (p. 15). Sroypan (1988) used a comprehensive definition which included various concepts

to define organizational effectiveness as "the extent to which any organization as a social system, given certain resources and means, fulfills its objectives without incapacitating its means and resources and without placing undue strain on its members" (p. 9). McNamara (1968) used his own definition but differentiated between effectiveness of the school and that of the leader. Steers (1977) indicated that effectiveness has a variety of meanings according to the multiple goals of individuals. The concept of effectiveness results from a relatively high output by the organization in relation to input, in order that an organization may make good use of human and material resources. Steers (1977) defined organizational effectiveness in terms of "an organization's capacity to acquire and utilize its scarce and valued resources as goals" (p. 5).

For purposes of this study, the basic definition proposed by Steers (1977) was used, and schools were considered to be "effective" if the following characteristics, as identified by Rutter et al. (1979), were present: instructional supervision, effective leadership, a positive school climate, a school-wide emphasis on basic skills, high expectations, frequent assessment of student progress, and parental involvement.

Perception

Perception was defined by Johns (1987) as the "process of interpreting the messages of our senses to provide order and meaning to the environment" (p. 81). He indicated that there are three components to a perceptual event: (a) a perceiver who is affected by experience, motivational state, and emotional state; (b) a target that is being perceived and its characteristics; and (c) a situational

context. Various biases can affect the validity of our perceptions: (a) privacy and recency effects, (b) reliance on central traits, (c) implicit personality theory, (d) projection, and (e) stereotyping. Perception is the key to attitudes, motivation, and behavior in human beings; the importance of analyzing the context in which behavior occurs as a means of interpreting behavior cannot be overstated. Johnson (1988) considered the definition which Shaver (1981) proposed to be the clearest and most useful; it focussed on "the understanding of the world that you construct from data obtained through your senses" (p. 837). This definition was used for purposes of this study. Shaver (1981) indicated that perception assists individuals to organize and sort input received by our senses so it becomes meaningful to them. He described it as a construct composed of aspects assembled in an interlocking manner to form an overall view; therefore, the interpretation of reality often determines the actions of an individual, rather than reality itself.

Leadership

Johns (1987) indicated that formal leadership "occurs when particular individuals exert influence upon others in an organizational context" (p. 309). As Duke (1986) pointed out, "leadership seems to be a gestalt phenomenon, greater than the sum of its behavioral parts. . . . [It] is first and foremost, a perception invested with social meaning and value" (p. 212). He concluded that it could be seen as the essence of adding meaning to relationships between individuals and larger entities such as schools, communities, or systems. Alternatively, Bennis (1990) focussed on the traits of leaders indicating that excellent leaders

are "thoughtful, intense, and involved. They are also able to reflect, to reframe problems, and to let the situation talk back to them" (p. 17). Kouzes and Posner (1990) extended this description to suggest that leadership begins where management ends because it allows for an innovative, individualistic, creative approach to the organizational role, rather than the stable, orderly systems approach often identified in traditional management theories.

Terry (1960) defined leadership as "the activity of influencing people to strive willingly for group goals" (p. 442). Terry's (1960) definition, which is appropriate for a school setting, was used for the purposes of this study. Like many subjective concepts, it is difficult to convey an exact meaning for this term.

In addition to formal leadership, informal leadership exists when individuals influence others by going beyond formal role requirements. Sergiovanni (1990) maintained that genuine leadership only occurs if the leader has a sense of purpose and "relies on values and ideas and when properly understood and practised engenders followership feelings and behaviors in teachers and students" (p. 10). The elements of informal leadership were assumed to be included as part of the definition of leadership for purposes of this study.

Constraint

The final concept which formed the foundation of this study was the term "constraint." Steers (1977) alluded to the importance of identifiable constraints such as money, technology, and personnel which could inhibit goal optimization and organizational effectiveness. He categorized the major factors which were identified in his research: (a) organizational characteristics, (b) environmental

characteristics, (c) employee characteristics, and (d) managerial policies and practices (p. 7).

It was concluded that there were several possible ways of categorizing the constraints or roadblocks for this study depending upon the results of the interview sessions: (a) saliency, to determine which constraints are more significant; (b) susceptibility to policy intervention, to analyze which constraints could be resolved by a change in system or school policies; and (c) situational elements, to determine whether constraints are internal aspects related to the individual leader and school or external aspects related to the system or provincial environment. Analysis of the findings revealed information in all three categories.

Eastcott, Holdaway, and Kuiken (1974) defined a constraint as "any more or less constant restriction upon an administrator's action or potential action; in some way the constraint prevents or impedes administrator action from being in line with the theoretical principles" (p. 41). Further, they identified three categories of constraints: (a) personal, such as age or education; (b) intra-organizational, such as physical facilities or communication patterns in the school; and (c) extra-organizational, such as school regulations or availability of resources. This last definition is the most comprehensive and appropriate for purposes of this study since this research was designed to identify and analyze constraints upon the application of knowledge, enhancement of competencies, and execution of specific desired behaviors which are related to school and leadership effectiveness. Thus, analysis of these constraints could have revealed potential causes of ineffectiveness and promoted implementation of effective leadership and school

practices.

If we assume that constraints are endemic to an organization, then administrators should take the position that constraints must be managed in order that changes are implemented to resolve the potentially negative result of these barriers to effectiveness.

Discrepancy Theory

This theory contends that job satisfaction "is a function of the discrepancy between the job outcomes a person wants and the outcomes that are perceived to be obtained" (Johns, 1987, p. 129). Williamson and Johnston (1991) indicated that it is this discrepancy between the actual and ideal which arouses the need for change. Consequently, this theory was used in the analysis of constraints for purposes of this study.

Research Questions

This study had three general purposes. The first was to describe which leadership competencies of principals were considered to be the most effective at this level. The second was to describe which characteristics of effective schools were considered by principals to be the most significant in the junior high setting. The third purpose was to explore the relationships between leadership effectiveness and school effectiveness in junior high schools in Alberta. The basic purpose of the study was to obtain information related to the following general research question:

> *What constraints upon the effectiveness of Alberta junior high schools and their principals are perceived as being the most important?*

Several specific questions were used as guides for developing the questionnaire which was sent to all junior high school principals in the province and interview schedules which were used with 10% of these principals. In addition, these questions formed the basis for establishing the parameters and basic framework during the initial phases of the study, directing the research methodology, analyzing and measuring the data, and discussing the findings.

These questions were grouped into two specific areas: (a) leadership effectiveness and (b) school effectiveness.

Leadership Effectiveness Questions

1. What are the perceptions of junior high principals about their own leadership competencies?

2. What are the perceptions of junior high principals about internal and external constraints on leadership effectiveness?

3. To what extent are the constraints perceived to influence leadership effectiveness?

4. Which constraints do principals consider to be the major barriers to leadership effectiveness?

5. What are the principals' perceptions about the relationship that exists between the leadership competencies of the principal and the overall effectiveness of the school?

6. To what extent are the constraints on the leadership effectiveness of the principal perceived to be related to the constraints on school effectiveness?

7. Which leadership competencies are perceived to be consistently related

to overall school effectiveness?

8. What are the implications of this knowledge for system and school-based administrators?

School Effectiveness Questions

1. What are the perceptions of junior high principals about the major discrepancies that exist between "ideal" and "actual" school effectiveness criteria?

2. What are the perceptions of junior high principals about the internal and external constraints upon their "actual" school effectiveness?

3. To what extent do each of the constraints influence the effectiveness of the school?

4. What constraints do principals consider to be the major barriers to school effectiveness?

Assumptions

The main assumptions underlying this study are outlined below:

1. The junior high school is a form of educational organization which differs substantially from elementary and senior high school settings.

2. The role of the principal in a junior high setting differs in some important ways from that of principals at other levels.

3. Information about perceptions regarding school effectiveness and principal effectiveness can be attained by means of an interview.

4. Principals will provide accurate responses to the interview.

5. The instruments which will be used to measure school and principal effectiveness are appropriate for these purposes.

6. The respondents will provide valid indicators of school and principal effectiveness.

7. The constraints on school and principal effectiveness can be categorized in a fashion which provides increased information about the implementation of effective school practices.

Limitations of the Study

Three major limitations were involved in this study.

The first limitation highlights the types of data collection procedures used. According to Kidder (1981, p. 150), the use of interviews presents the following concerns: (a) reduced anonymity, (b) pressure on the respondent for an immediate response, and (c) limited number of participants. However, interviews can compensate for the limitations of other research strategies in four main ways: (a) immediate responses are available, (b) responses do not depend on the motivation and ability of respondents to provide information independently, (c) a greater depth of response is possible, and (d) an opportunity exists to obtain complete answers through clarification. Further, the use of a questionnaire presents certain disadvantages in that the reliability and validity of an individually designed instrument cannot be established completely, except through the results of the pilot and main studies. However, Kidder (1981, p. 148) listed several advantages for questionnaires: (a) they are less expensive to administer than interviews so a larger group may be surveyed, (b) interviewer bias can be avoided, (c) there is greater confidence in anonymity, and (d) there is less pressure for respondents to respond immediately. The use of both types of data collection

procedures was designed to combine the maximum advantages of each strategy.

This study was also limited in that the responses to the interview and questionnaire items are dependent upon the perceptions of the respondents at the time they participated in the study. This was an important consideration in that accuracy and stability may vary greatly according to situational factors such as staffing concerns, economic difficulties, union agreements, and personal problems. Requesting information regarding school and personal data during the structured portion of the interview and questionnaire assisted in identifying these situational factors. Therefore, the relationships identified between variables which were measured in a particular situation would not be affected. In addition, follow-up contact with a small sample of respondents was used to clarify interview responses and results of the data analysis as required.

A final limitation was related to the size of the respondent population. Approximately 10% of the total population of junior high principals in the province were selected for the interview in order to provide additional information and clarification. However, all respondents in junior high schools received a copy of the questionnaire. Principals were the only stakeholder group involved as respondents due to the importance of their role in effective school operation as indicated by such authors as Manasse (1985), Purkey and Smith (1983), Renihan and Renihan (1984), and Rutter et al. (1979). It was recognized that there were limitations created by precluding other stakeholder groups (i.e., teachers, support staff, parents, and students). However, the addition of such groups was considered inappropriate for a study of this nature. In order

to increase reliability of the data, a semi-structured format was used with a representative sample of respondents for both instruments.

Delimitations of the Study

This study was delimited in four main ways:

1. This study featured junior high schools in Alberta with grades 7, 8, and 9 only.

2. The interview was delimited to 10% of the population of principals, whereas the questionnaire was sent to all principals in the province.

3. The focus was on school effectiveness and effective leadership competencies as the two major elements selected from the literature.

4. Principals were selected as the respondent group for the pilot study, questionnaire, and semi-structured interview.

Organization of the Thesis

This thesis is organized into chapters based on specific themes. Chapter 1 contains an overview of the main elements of the study, including the background, purpose, significance, assumptions, conceptual framework, limitations, and delimitations. In addition, a list of research questions which formed the basis for the study and definitions of key terms used in the study are provided.

Chapter 2 is comprised of a review of the related literature on three themes relevant to this research: (a) school effectiveness, (b) leadership effectiveness, and (c) junior high school organization.

In Chapter 3, the research methodology is reported by outlining the research instruments, the data-collection procedures, and analysis conducted on

interview and questionnaire results.

Chapter 4 presents a profile of the respondents by describing organizational and professional characteristics of the respondents as well as a profile of the principals selected for the interview.

A description of the constraints on leadership effectiveness is presented in Chapter 5 which includes the most important and least important constraints.

The constraints on school effectiveness of principals are outlined in Chapter 6, once again through an analysis of the most important and least important constraints.

In Chapter 7, the relationships among demographic variables and constraints for leadership effectiveness are provided and described.

The relationships among demographic variables and constraints for school effectiveness are outlined and analyzed in Chapter 8.

In Chapter 9, the summary, discussion, implications, and conclusions regarding the major findings are presented.

The final section contains a complete bibliography of all resources utilized during this research study as well as appendices which contain the questionnaire, interview schedule, and relevant correspondence.

Chapter 2

Review of the Related Literature

The literature which is relevant for this research study can be divided into three general topics: (a) organizational and school effectiveness, (b) leadership and leadership effectiveness, and (c) junior high schools. The major references analyzed in this literature review represent an extensive examination of contemporary research. Information gained from this literature search was used to indicate directions for the data collection, analysis, and interpretation of research results for this study.

Organizational and School Effectiveness

Introduction

Organizational effectiveness has been a focus of increased attention in the past decade. In the field of educational administration, Miklos (1990) indicated that the effectiveness of various structural arrangements was a theme for approximately 10 studies conducted between 1958 and 1990 at the University of Alberta, Edmonton. As a specific topic within the theme of organizational effectiveness, school effectiveness has been examined by many researchers in relation to other variables. The following review of relevant literature provides a global appraisal of knowledge in this field.

Influence of Perception in Analyzing Organizational Effectiveness

The influence of perception is closely related to the use of paradigms in creating our ideals of school effectiveness. All practices in schools are guided by perceptions of individuals in relation to experiences with colleagues, students,

parents, community members, policies, philosophies, and practices. Johnson (1987, p. 208) stated that "perception occurs only after sequential transformation stages: stimulus, sensory store, perceptual image, memory, and response." The stimulus creates a specific sensory activity which is then compared with memory and attribution of cause, thus forming a perception or impression which dictates a specific response. Perceptions, then, are an approximation of reality which may or may not be recognizable to the individual but which determine attitudes and behavior. Similarly, Bartley (1980), Bruner (1957), Johns (1987), and Johnson (1987) maintained that perception is a vitally important influence in organizations.

With regard to educational settings, Johnson (1987) reminded practitioners that they should be aware of factors which could possibly bias their analysis of events and personal actions. In addition, they need to test their perceptions through honest, open communication with stakeholders and colleagues. He also recommended that the development of skills in critical thinking and analysis is crucial for those working in educational organizations.

Gunn and Holdaway (1986) examined the perceptions of senior high school principals with respect to their leadership effectiveness, their influence, and the organizational effectiveness of their schools in relation to the construct of job satisfaction. They concluded that "particular affective reactions to their perceptions . . . may be unique to persons who are leaders of organizations" (p. 61); so they inferred that researchers need to understand the needs, motives, and values of school administrators if they are to make accurate recommendations

related to improved school and leadership effectiveness.

Theoretical Models of Organizational Effectiveness

Much rhetoric has surrounded the concept of organizational effectiveness in recent years. Steers (1977) believed that organizational effectiveness was a multidimensional concept comprised of four major factors which contributed to the successful goal optimization of an organization: (a) organizational characteristics such as the extent of decentralization or the degree of formality of interpersonal interactions, (b) environmental characteristics such as the economy or the societal elements, (c) employee characteristics such as attitudes or needs, and (d) managerial policies and practices which promote goal attainment such as rewards and motivational strategies. He designed a process model or open systems theory of organizations which examined effectiveness by jointly considering the following three related concepts: (a) goal optimization, (b) a systems perspective, and (c) an emphasis on human behavior in organizational settings. As Kast and Rosenzweig (1970) pointed out, the open systems model highlights the importance of human involvement in the various steps of the process and allows for the impact of numerous environmental forces.

Similarly, Harrison (1987) presented an analysis of the open system model as an approach which is applicable to any type of organization. The main elements, as outlined below, can be used to diagnose aspects of schools as effective organizations: (a) inputs or resources, (b) outputs, (c) technology, (d) environment, (e) purposes, (f) behavior and processes, (g) culture, and (h) structure. Diagnosis of these organizational elements is essential if the

organization is to grow and to enhance its performance.

Peters and Waterman (1982) also highlighted the importance of environmental elements and interpersonal interaction. They conducted an extensive analysis of excellent companies which resulted in a recommendation of eight practices which are considered to be characteristic of successful organizations: (a) a bias toward action, (b) closeness to the customer, (c) autonomy and innovation, (d) human resource productivity, (e) shared values, (f) a tendency to "stick to the knitting," (g) minimal bureaucracy and staff, and (h) balance between autonomy and control. These basic principles of organizational effectiveness provide a model which can be applied to the school setting due to the focus on interpersonal relationships among all representatives from various stakeholder groups.

Ratsoy (1983), after surveying various models of organizational effectiveness, concluded that the lack of agreement regarding the actual meaning of organizational effectiveness as indicated by assessment criteria and the procedures for achieving increased effectiveness necessitates the use of a contingency approach. Such an approach would allow for the adaptation of the specific requirements of each particular situation.

Evolution of Research on School Effectiveness

The general pessimism about the quality of schooling of the early 1970s was stimulated by Coleman's (1966) analysis of equality of educational opportunity in the United States; it presented the view that schooling cannot compensate for the inequality that existed within the economic and political

structures of society. After an extensive survey of 645,000 students in 4,000 elementary and secondary schools, Coleman et al. (1966) concluded that educational achievement and developmental growth of children were basically independent of the schooling process due to the predominant effects of society.

The first major concern of these theories resulted from the equally extensive research project conducted by Rutter et al. (1979) in England. They noted that children spend over 15,000 hours in school from the age of five until they leave school. This fact suggested the need for additional research to determine which particular features of school organization and functioning would offer major contributions to individual student success. Unlike the Coleman Report, Rutter et al. (1979) believed that school quality should be measured by the degree of growth in achievement through repeated measurements for the same group of students at different stages in their school career, rather than using verbal ability as the only measure of knowledge attained. Rutter et al. (1979, pp. 177-178) proposed several conclusions which formed a foundation for future research and practice; to illustrate, they concluded that differences among schools were related to characteristics of the school organization, such as the degree of emphasis on academics, the instructional strategies used, the availability of incentives and rewards, and the degree of responsibility given to students. They concluded that the quality of life within the school organization does have an effect upon the behavior and growth of the students.

Despite the convincing nature of these findings, there was no evidence of constructive change for American schools in the early 1980s. Consequently, the

United States Department of Education report, *Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Reform* (1983) provided recommendations for reform at the secondary school level which were designed to resolve the sense of mediocrity which was seen within the educational system by members of the commission and to enhance America's international standing in education. The Commission concluded that a variety of changes in the educational system are essential, including the following: (a) establishment of a merit pay scheme, (b) implementation of a longer school year, (c) improved curriculum requirements regarding foundation courses for diplomas and college entrance, and (d) more rigorous and measurable standards of achievement.

Clauset and Gaynor (1982) employed a systems approach to the study of effective schools in an attempt to extract the essential indicators and to combine them to form a conceptual schema. Several implications resulted which are consistent with related research conducted by Murphy and Hallinger (1985), Purkey and Smith (1983), and Renihan and Renihan (1984). Clauset and Gaynor (1982) proposed that the interactive nature of school variables and the importance of understanding the relationships among leadership, expectations, climate, instruction, and achievement was key to policy development and effective school operation.

Subsequently, Goodlad (1983) conducted an in-depth study to provide a "thick" description of a representative sample of elementary, junior, and senior high schools which included observations, interviews with principals, teachers, parents, and students, and an examination of system policy statements for 50

states. His analysis of these extensive data indicated that school improvement would not be successful unless major changes occurred in the current situation, because practices were geared to the lowest common denominators. Consequently, he identified the need for schools to assess their effectiveness in relation to these research findings regarding the essential school characteristics and to implement appropriate change.

Unlike Goodlad (1983) who presented the results of his own research, Purkey and Smith (1983) conducted the first comprehensive critical review of the literature on school effectiveness, indicating that it presented narrow, simplistic recipes for school improvement based on nonexperimental data. Despite their criticism of the methodologies used, they cautioned that the theory regarding identification of certain characteristics of effective schools should not be discredited. Purkey and Smith (1983) then integrated these findings with theories of organizational change and implementation by educators such as Fullan (1982) in order to provide a more complex picture of effective schools and restructuring. They listed a number of school practices which were predominant in higher achieving schools, including the following: (a) a clear sense of purpose, (b) a positive school climate, (c) high expectations, (d) school-site management, (e) staff stability, (f) instructional leadership, (g) parental involvement, (h) a sense of community, (i) curriculum articulation, (j) maximized learning time, (k) a safe and orderly learning environment, and (l) recognition of academic success. Subsequent research (Murphy and Hallinger, 1985; Renihan & Renihan, 1984) produced similar lists of essential elements for effective schools.

Rowan, Bossert, and Dwyer (1983) and Ralph and Fennessey (1983) also conducted a systematic review of empirical research on effective schools. They argued that the effective schools perspective is a strategy for reform. They identified several shortcomings in this field of research: (a) a lack of empirical evidence, (b) failure to distinguish between studies based on statistical data and those based on impressions, (c) the overzealous tone of certain research which resulted in false expectations of effectiveness, (d) failure to control for school demographics, (e) questionable generalizability, and (f) inclusion of uncertain causal and temporal relationships.

During the same time period, Cuban (1983) identified several additional problems with the accumulated research on effective schools. He noted that no clear set of guidelines exists to create effective schools and that language used in this area is unclear because it refers to such concepts as climate and leadership which are undefinable and based largely upon perception. Further, he proposed that effectiveness is a constricted concept which ignores many skills that cannot be assessed by clear-cut methods, such as the development of self-esteem, higher level thinking, and decision-making abilities. Cuban (1983) also revealed that research has been done mainly in elementary schools which vary greatly from junior and secondary schools.

Later, Orlich (1986) reported on another widespread study that was conducted by the Carnegie Foundation; it emphasized the need for increased empowerment of teachers as the chief strategy for improving student achievement. Similarly, Radwanski's (1988) research in Canada concluded that the following

recommendations proposed in previous effective school research had still not been implemented: (a) a clear sense of purpose, (b) a safe and orderly environment, (c) a positive school climate, and (d) recognition of academic success. He suggested that the need for restructuring was evident in the increased sense of alienation felt by students and the increasingly higher drop-out rates.

These findings challenged the existing views of effective schools and the preoccupation with instructional leadership, highlighting the need to examine paradoxes that exist in effective schools research. As Johnson (1988) acknowledged, "effectiveness is a universal concern among organizational administrators. . . . Yet, dimensions and criteria for gauging the quality of performance in schools remain problematic" (p. 1). He obtained perceptual data from Alberta elementary schools in relation to levels of effectiveness and the importance of various effectiveness indicators, the most important of which involved climate, degree of community support, and promotion of academic success. However, his study revealed that indicators such as the amount of teacher collaboration and the transmission of goals to students were not perceived to be important indicators, a finding which was in contrast to previous studies conducted by Rutter et al. (1979) and the review of research conducted by Purkey and Smith (1983).

Sroypan (1988) performed a provincial study which examined the perceptions of school effectiveness and satisfaction for principals in Alberta junior high schools, in order to obtain information about perceptions of critical aspects of effectiveness. Her review of the literature led to the implication that criteria

was selected according to alternative viewpoints from stakeholders within the organization. An analysis of the six items with the greatest degree of variation for each component (i.e., leadership and school effectiveness) from Sroypan's (1988) study provided relevant information for this study. The discrepancies shown in Tables 2.1 and 2.2 were noted in the results from her analysis of school effectiveness and overall effectiveness of principals.

Sroypan (1988) concluded that "the most important criteria for assessing the effectiveness of junior high schools were perceived to be related to school goals, expectations, climate, morale, satisfaction, and achievement. . . ." (p. iv). The high return rate of 89% for principal questionnaires allowed these results to provide a useful source of data which provided further information about potential constraints on school and leadership effectiveness.

Subsequently, Highett (1989) related perspectives on organizational effectiveness and school effectiveness by analyzing the perceptions of parents, principals, and superintendents. His study suggested that the role of the principal and the degree of student centredness are important variables to consider in determining the overall school effectiveness.

More recently, Fox (1992) provided a comprehensive review of the knowledge, skills, and strategies required to promote change in educational organizations. He cautioned educators to become aware of the following types of limitations of research on effective schools: (a) narrow definitions of an effective school based on standardized achievement tests, (b) lack of a uniform methodology, (c) biased measures focussing on urban elementary schools, and

Table 2.1

The Six Most Effective Aspects and the Six Most Important Criteria for Judging Overall Effectiveness of Junior High Schools, as Obtained by Sroypan (1988)

	Criterion	School effectiveness level		Importance	
		Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank
#12	Maximizing the morale of the staff as a group	5.02	18.5	3.95	1.0
#13	Acknowledging the achievements of staff and students	5.12	14.0	3.94	2.5
#14	Displaying leadership by the principal	5.15	13.0	3.93	5.0
#15	Maximizing the job satisfaction of individual staff members	4.88	28.0	3.89	7.0
#16	Setting school goals	5.06	17.0	3.87	9.0
#17	Using appropriate teaching methods	4.99	20.5	3.86	10.0

Source: Sroypan (1988), Table 6.9

Table 2.2

The Six Most Effective and the Six Most Important Criteria for Judging Overall Effectiveness of Principals, as Obtained by Sroypan (1988)

	Criterion	Principal effectiveness level		Importance	
		Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean
#8	Promoting high expectations among staff members	5.17	8.5	3.88	4.5
#11	Providing feedback to staff	5.13	11.5	3.86	7.5
#12	Improving the performance of staff	4.95	17.0	3.88	4.5
#13	Obtaining qualified staff	4.93	20.0	3.88	6.0
#14	Fostering high morale among staff and students	5.12	13.0	3.86	7.5
#15	Coordinating the development of school goals	5.07	14.0	3.81	9.0

Source: Sroypan (1988), pp. 102 and 117.

(d) failure to analyze relationships among school-level variables. These concerns highlighted the need for thoughtful implementation of change within schools.

Criteria for Assessing School Effectiveness

Research conducted in the field of school effectiveness indicated that a specific set of criteria as listed previously are considered to be characteristic of effective schools. Although not all factors are found in all effective schools, the potential list provides a global appraisal of knowledge from this field.

The first set of variables proposed by Purkey and Smith (1983) centered upon the notion of "process variables" which include "characteristics that need to grow organically in a school and are not directly susceptible to bureaucratic manipulation" (p. 444) so they precede the development of culture and climate. An analysis of findings from several researchers indicated that the following organization-structure variables were considered to be most significant: (a) school-site management, as noted by Levine (1985) and Purkey and Smith (1983); (b) instructional leadership by the principal, which was a factor that arose from research conducted by Blum (1984), Duren (1992), Fiedler and Garcia (1987), Fullan (1982), Huddle (1984), Knoop and Wagner (1986), Manasse (1985), Mintzberg (1973), Norris (1990), Renihan and Renihan (1984), Rutter et al. (1979), Sergiovanni (1982), Smith and Piele (1989), and Yukl (1981); (c) staff stability, which was identified by Purkey and Smith (1983); (d) curriculum articulation with a core set of standards for diverse academic programs in all subject areas, which was proposed by Eubanks and Levine (1983), Holdaway and Ratsoy (1991), Murphy and Hallinger (1985), and Purkey and Smith (1983); (e) parental involvement and support for student achievement, which was advocated by Blum (1984), Eubanks and Levine (1983), Huddle (1984), and Purkey and Smith (1983); (f) schoolwide recognition of academic success, which was listed by Eubanks and Levine (1983), Huddle (1984), McCormack-Larkin and Kritek (1982), Manasse (1985), Purkey and Smith (1983), and Rutter et al. (1979); (g) maximized learning time with an emphasis on basic academic skills, which was proposed in research conducted by Blum (1984), Duren (1992), Eubanks and

Levine (1983), Huddle (1984), Levine (1985), Manasse (1985), Murphy and Hallinger (1985), Purkey and Smith (1983), Renihan and Renihan (1984), and Rutter et al. (1985); and (h) district support through assistance with change, which was identified in the summary of effective schools research by Purkey and Smith (1983).

The second set of variables identified by Purkey and Smith (1983) is related to the concepts of school culture and climate as they support academic performance and interpersonal goals. Therefore, attempts to increase effectiveness by imposing a set of required characteristics necessitate changing the attitudes, organizational structure, and norms.

The following recommendations from various researchers can be included in this category as culture variables: (a) a safe, comfortable environment where students understand the school's expectations for academic success, which was recommended by Blum (1984), Duren (1992), Eubanks and Levine (1983), Fullan (1982), Huddle (1984), Levine (1985), Manasse (1985), Murphy and Hallinger (1985), Peters and Waterman (1982), Purkey and Smith (1983), and Rutter et al. (1979); (b) collaborative planning which promotes unity, high staff morale, collegiality, and improved communication, which was proposed by Blum (1984), Eubanks and Levine (1983), Fullan (1982), Holdaway and Ratsoy (1991), Huddle (1984), Levine (1983), and Purkey and Smith (1983); (c) a sense of community with a high degree of interaction, communication, and recognition which indicates that members form a supportive, unique group, which was affirmed through research conducted by McCormack-Larkin and

Kritek (1982), Murphy and Hallinger (1985), and Purkey and Smith (1983); (d) clear goals, a mission, and a sense of purpose which is cooperatively shared, reinforced, planned, and used as a prevailing norm to guide activities; these characteristics were identified by Blum (1984), Buell (1992), Eubanks and Levine (1983), Fullan (1982), Johnson (1988), Levine (1985), Murphy and Hallinger (1985), Purkey and Smith (1983), Renihan and Renihan (1984), and Sroypan (1988); (e) order and discipline through the creation of reasonable, fair rules of conduct that promote learning, are fairly enforced, and reduce behavior problems; these specific aspects were affirmed through research conducted by Fullan (1982), Murphy and Hallinger (1985), Purkey and Smith (1983); (f) high expectations for academic achievement and educational excellence, which was identified as important by Blum (1984), Eubanks and Levine (1983), Holdaway and Ratsoy (1991), Johnson (1988), Ralph and Fennessey (1983), and Sroypan (1988); (g) multiple opportunities for student responsibility, a sense of individuality, leadership, and meaningful involvement; this set of qualities was suggested by Johnson (1988), Murphy and Hallinger (1985), and Purkey and Smith (1983); and (h) establishment of culture through effective use of traditions, myths, and legends; this recommendation was derived from research conducted by Levine (1985) and Rutter et al. (1979).

The research findings of Renihan and Renihan (1984) identified two additional areas of emphasis to consider when applying the institutional image concept to the school setting and to aspects of school effectiveness. The first area of emphasis that they identified was the "cosmetic care" dimension which refers to

"a deliberate, systematic, ongoing attempt on the part of the principal to keep the school in high profile . . . in the public eye" (p. 4). This focus on growth was reiterated by Gellman (1992) who postulated that team approaches are far more flexible than the traditional organizational structure because they "focus on team learning, human networks, and the effective use of information technology" (p. 11). Recently, Mitchell and Tucker (1992) conducted studies of the relationship of principal and superintendent effectiveness to teacher behavior and performance in California schools. Their results support the concept of the culture of the school in that cultures "create social norms and draw attention to opportunities for action" (p. 31), thus providing a guide for behavior and thought patterns.

The second area was the "pastoral care" dimension, which Renihan and Renihan (1984) defined as "the conscious attention given to meeting the social, emotional, psychological, and academic needs of each student" (p. 4). In order to support the network of relationships that exist in the school setting, it is necessary to establish a climate of respect, openness, and support for students, staff, and parents. More recently, Lawton (1992) agreed that an effective school is one which programs for all types of student needs. Due to the special needs of adolescents, the importance of responding to these needs cannot be overstated when seeking school improvement.

Potential Constraints on School Effectiveness

It became apparent to analysts that restructuring and improvement based on a set of school effectiveness criteria was not a simple process, due to the

formidable barriers or constraints which restrict implementation of recommendations from researchers.

Harrison (1987) outlined categories of constraints which could impinge upon organizational effectiveness and therefore must be considered when determining the appropriateness of specific interventions. These categories provided a useful structure for analyzing constraints on school effectiveness presented during the collection of data in this study: (a) organizational size and complexity, (b) overall purpose, (c) institutional setting, (d) routineness of procedures, (e) workforce composition, (f) degree of bureaucratization, (g) stage in the organizational life cycle, (h) strategy for coping with the environment, and (i) environmental predictability and competitiveness. These generic contingencies were considered as initial types of constraints due to the comprehensive nature of Harrison's (1987) categories.

Several well-qualified educators and researchers have investigated the potential impact of constraints on effectiveness in school organizations. Renihan and Renihan (1984) outlined the following categories of constraints based on their extensive review of the literature regarding effective schools and their own research project conducted in Saskatchewan: (a) groupthink and the seduction of technology, (b) power games and territorialism, (c) tradition, and (d) ineffective leadership.

Murphy (1987) also highlighted the following range of barriers that can reduce effective leadership and thus negatively impact the overall effectiveness of the school: (a) lack of firm knowledge base related to the role due to inadequate

training, (b) nature of curriculum and instruction issues since it is often not clear how students learn, (c) norms of professionalism which create isolation and individualism, (d) district expectations, (e) nature of the role since principals are expected to be all things to all people, and (f) ambiguous nature of the concept of instructional leadership. He proposed three considerations for reducing the constraining impact on leadership effectiveness: (a) development of policies to provide structure and facilitate appropriate change, (b) refocussed training during pre-service related to curriculum and instructional supervision, and (c) research into current theories.

Goodlad (1990) provided two additional constraints in his summary of the findings of a five-year study of teacher education across the United States. He suggested that the following conditions would create little opportunity for coordinated action toward renewal or application of effective secondary school characteristics: (a) low prestige or low status for teachers, and (b) unclear mission and identity.

Highett (1989) described perspectives of organizational effectiveness and school effectiveness by analyzing the perceptions of parents, principals, and superintendents in South Australia. His summary suggested that two of the key aspects of effectiveness were the extent to which the school was student-centered and the degree to which principals provided effective structure; two major constraints on school effectiveness that he noted were the lack of teamwork and inadequate finances. The role of the principal is certainly crucial to the effectiveness of the school as an organization.

Leadership and Leadership Effectiveness

Introduction

Ovard (1990) attested to the complexity of the principal's role when he alleged that "never in the history of education has so much been expected from the principal" (p. 1). Williamson and Johnston (1991) also acknowledged that principals have a multi-faceted role because they must possess knowledge of curriculum, instructional supervision processes, and positive climate but they must also demonstrate interpersonal, communication, decision-making, and management skills. Increased understanding of this prominent role within the school organization was gained by exploring the research findings and theoretical models which highlight essential characteristics of effective school leaders.

Role of Perception in Analyzing Leadership Effectiveness

Perception plays a major role in the study of leadership effectiveness within school organizations. As Richardson, Wynne, and Miklos (1988) pointed out, each of us lives with several paradigms which are constantly undergoing change based on our beliefs, culture, knowledge, and past experiences. Theorists were persuaded to abandon former conceptualizations of leadership effectiveness as a measure of rationality, adherence to policy, achievement of results, or uniformity in behavior in favor of the emerging perspective proposed by Blumberg (1989), Bruckner and Jones (1990), Duke (1986), Frase and Hetzel (1990), and Sergiovanni (1990) who described the effective principal as a value-oriented leader capable of adapting to various situations, empowering followers, and reflecting on daily practice. Perceptions permit individuals to discover,

understand, and react to their environment and to the individuals within it. Consequently, an underlying purpose of this study was to provide a global appraisal of knowledge regarding leadership effectiveness within educational organizations through an examination of the burgeoning research conducted in this area.

Theoretical Models of Effective Leadership

According to Johns (1987), "leadership occurs when particular individuals exert influence upon others in an organizational context" (p. 309). The position of the principal in a school setting can be described as formal leadership due to the fact that authority is attached to such a position. In the past, traits or personal characteristics such as intelligence, courage, and self-confidence were considered by some theorists to be crucial for both formal and informal leaders. However, this approach failed to take the situational aspects into account and neglected the possible development of such traits as a result of leadership opportunities.

Lavery (1973), Manasse (1985), McNamara (1968), Mulhauser (1982), Pitner and Hocevar (1987), Sergiovanni (1989), and Yukl (1981) are among the researchers who have stated that an examination of the situation or organizational setting is relevant to the analysis of variations which exist in schools. Two theories outlined by Johns (1987) consider these situational variables. Fiedler's Contingency Theory was based on the presumption that some situations are more favorable for leadership than others, so they require different orientations by the leader including the following characteristics:

1. **Leader-member relations**. Several leadership effectiveness criteria

highlight the importance of interpersonal skills and personal qualities in the developing of a positive school climate. These criteria were identified by Bennis (1990), Chance and Grady (1990), Farmer (1979), Harper and Holdaway (1978), Huddle (1984), Kouzes and Posner (1990), Lavery (1973), Manasse (1985), McNamara (1968), Mulhauser (1982), Mintzberg (1973), Pitner and Hocevar (1987), and Sergiovanni (1984). Some of these skills and qualities include promoting innovation, solving problems, encouraging participation in decision making, praising appropriate performance, and demonstrating consideration of others.

Johns (1987) suggested that "the range in size and organization of schools makes it unlikely that a single, uncomplicated theory of principal leadership effectiveness will apply to all schools" (p. 3).

2. **Task structure**. Leaders should be able to exert more influence over the group when the task is extremely structured. According to researchers such as Farmer (1979), Huddle (1984), Kouzes and Posner (1990), Manasse (1985), Murphy (1987), and Murphy, Hallinger, and Peterson (1985), this necessitates clear goals, established procedures, and performance measures.

3. **Position power**. The leadership situation is thus more favorable when more power is granted to the particular position within the organization. Many researchers, including Benveniste (1989), Crowson and Porter-Gehrie (1981), Farmer (1979), Hall et al. (1984), Hanke (1988), Huddle (1984), Katz (1975), Murphy (1987), McEvoy (1987), Pitner and Hocevar (1987), Sergiovanni (1984), and Sergiovanni (1990), failed to identify this as a separate element of

importance, either as a contributing factor or as a constraint upon effectiveness. Instead, they chose to focus on leadership skills, behavioral factors, and competencies which are required regardless of the power base attached to the position.

House's Path-Goal Model, as described by Johns (1987), is the second major theory of relevance to this issue; it is based on the belief that "the effective leader forms a connection between subordinate goals and organizational goals . . . [so] leader behavior must be perceived as immediately satisfying or as leading to future satisfaction" (p. 322). According to this theory, different types of subordinates need different types of leadership. The other set of situational factors involves environmental aspects such as the clarity of tasks and the degree of redundancy in daily routine.

Although Creed (1973) did not find reliable support for this theory of leadership in his study of the relationships between leader behaviors and the satisfaction of subordinates for English schools in Quebec, the analysis of his results indicated that there are three aspects of leader behavior worthy of consideration: (a) participative behavior, (b) achievement-oriented behavior, and (c) directive behavior. His findings suggested that differences in relationships between the leader and the subordinates emanated from different perceptions of roles associated with specific types of leader behavior.

The third model of importance is the Vroom and Yetton Situational Model described by Johns (1987); it highlights the importance of participation in decision making because it recognizes that various degrees of participation by subordinates

should be employed to respond to different problems. Their decision tree approach allows for a continuum from totally autocratic to totally democratic decision making according to the particular situation and problem.

Miklos (1983) proposed another leadership model which advocated a proactive orientation to the leadership role in educational organizations. His theory proposed the following images of the principalship: (a) manager, (b) facilitator, (c) politician, and (d) leader. As Miklos (1983) suggested, "the definition of a role is a dynamic statement of how a person should lead a life, not an impersonal set of prescriptions" (p. 277). However, he cautioned that constraints are imposed on the definition of a role by the requirements of the organization, the expectations of the members, and other situational factors.

Similarly, Bredeson (1985) identified metaphors for school leadership from the literature and described them in the statements, values, and daily routines of five school principals. He based his research on the findings of effective schools research, including the conclusions recommended by Lipham (1981) which indicated that the "behavior of the principal is the single most important factor supporting high quality educational programs" (p. 1). Bredeson (1985) outlined the following metaphors for the principal's role: (a) maintenance, (b) survival, and (c) vision. According to Bredeson (1985), this final metaphor has the most positive orientation but is the most problematic due to the negative effect of system constraints such as policies, salary agreements, and traditional procedures which prevent principals from having adequate time, resources, and energy to create visionary possibilities. Like Miklos (1983), Bredeson (1985) contended that

the school leadership role is a dynamic, creative process which is constantly undergoing change in relation to various situational elements.

Recognizing the need for better information about the leadership role of principals, Hall, Rutherford, Hord, and Huling (1984) conducted research in Texas to identify the specific kinds and combinations of behaviors principals should exhibit daily to improve schools. They concluded that three main styles of school leadership exist: (a) initiator, (b) manager, and (c) responder.

Hall et al. (1984) analyzed several dimensions for each style including vision and goal setting, organizing the school as a workplace, managing change, collaborating and delegating, decision making, and structuring the leadership role. They concluded that although more research is clearly needed to fully understand the criteria and functioning of the principal as an effective leader, "the key appears to be in the blending, matching, and sequencing, rather than striving to maintain a particular snapshot" (p. 28).

Duke's (1986) analysis of these contemporary theories about leadership concluded that the study of leadership required a new approach which supported the development of an aesthetic-based leadership model. Such an approach would focus on the meaning attached to leaders by their followers and on what they do rather than merely on what they achieve. He recommended that the real key to leadership effectiveness was the ability to make activities meaningful for individuals in the organization by giving them a sense of understanding about their behavior.

Griffiths (1988) analyzed research results and theories proposed through

the 1990s. He also addressed the question of the generalizability of theories in relation to the various types of organizations and cultures in educational settings. He provided strong support for theorists who take a realist, positivist approach to issues because people and organizations do exist as concrete entities. Griffiths (1988) favored the use of various approaches to leadership.

Sergiovanni (1984) promoted a similar interactive approach in his theory of leadership at this time. He identified the following five leadership forces: (a) technical, (b) human, (c) educational, (d) symbolic, and (e) cultural. He maintained that the first three forces are required for competent school leadership but excellent leadership was characterized by the inclusion of the last two qualities. Bennis (1990) also reinforced the importance of vision as the ability of the leader to communicate views about the desired state of affairs, thereby inducing members to share these views.

In a later text, Sergiovanni (1990) rejected the traditional views of leadership as following directions instead of solving problems. He focussed solely on the theme of value-added leadership as a synthesis of traditional management theories, social science implications, and recent research on effective schools. His theory was that leadership is comprised of nine value-added dimensions and two corollaries. In addition, he indicated that there are four stages of leadership for school improvement: (a) initiation, (b) uncertainty, (c) transformation, and (d) routinization. It was Sergiovanni's (1990) belief that "the best principals are not heroes; they are hero-makers" (p. 152).

More recently, Mitchell and Tucker (1992) also condemned the supervisory

role proposed by many earlier researchers who focussed on leadership effectiveness. Based on studies with principals and superintendents, they proposed a theory which supported the importance of school culture in determining appropriate leadership orientations. They suggested that two types of leadership exist: (a) transactional, and (b) transformational. They indicated that transactional leadership is most appropriate for "settlement cultures" in well-established schools that have standardized patterns of behavior, whereas transformational leadership is more effective in "frontier cultures" where individuals are establishing a new school culture or undergoing a change in goals and incentives. Mitchell and Tucker (1992) maintained that the current thrust toward school improvement and restructuring require this latter type of leadership which highlights creativity, personal commitment by staff, and flexible belief structures.

Similarly, Sagor (1992) summarized his research with the Collaborative Action Research program in 50 Washington schools by stating that without transformational leadership, it is not possible to have exemplary schools. He proposed that there are three essential qualities of this type of leadership: (a) a clear and unified focus, (b) a common cultural perspective, and (c) a constant push for improvement.

Furthermore, Baskett and Miklos (1992) conducted interviews with four principals who had been nominated by fellow principals and by associate superintendents in the three large urban school jurisdictions in Alberta as being highly effective. This provided an in-depth examination of leadership practices

and philosophies. A common focus for the beliefs and actions of all four principals was the concern for students. With regard to leadership, the focus was on relationships with various groups of stakeholders. Baskett and Miklos (1992) concluded that "analyses of effective schools will likely lead to a consideration of school leadership. The school context and the performance of the principal are difficult to separate" (p. 8). Dealing with a wide variety of diverse and ever-changing role requirements and prioritizing these needs was a key skill for principals in this study.

Evolution of Research on Leadership Effectiveness in School Organizations

The literature is full of statements about what ought to be done by principals if they are to operate effectively within the school organization. A chronological review of this research will provide a critical overview of these findings.

Several major studies completed in the department of Educational Administration at the University of Alberta reported interesting results regarding the leadership role of school principals. Keeler's (1961) study of Alberta schools was one of the first to support the relationship between leader behavior and school productivity. Miklos (1963) analyzed Alberta principals and concluded that situational factors such as the degree of consensus about the role and the extent of teacher-principal agreement regarding the definition of the role had a significant effect on leader behavior. McNamara (1968) analyzed Fiedler's theory of leadership effectiveness in Alberta schools. He found that the leadership variable had significance for school effectiveness and that the length of time the

principal had been in the school was the most important situational factor.

In addition, several major research studies were conducted in the United States during the 1980s. Blumberg and Greenfield (1980) studied 80 highly effective principals in Illinois to conclude that they used vision to create an environment where their personal values provided a foundation for the school. Mulhauser (1982) presented the first review of the literature on the principalship which yielded interesting implications regarding leadership issues such as selection and training, the importance of instructional leadership, and the prominence of situational factors. Another issue investigated by Mulhauser (1982) indicated that "people problems" take most of the principal's time, especially if no priorities are established for problem resolution in advance. He summarized Mintzberg's (1973) managerial roles and Yukl's (1981) observational data of principals in Chicago to confirm the density of encounters in a principal's work day, the multiple roles to be juggled, and the importance of situational variables in enhancing or diminishing principal effectiveness.

Morris, Crowson, Hurwitz, and Porter-Gehrie (1982) also summarized the voluminous literature on the principalship, concluding that it tended to be prescriptive and exhortatory in nature rather than descriptive and empirical, as is evidenced in the writings of Mintzberg (1973) and Hersey and Blanchard (1976). They conducted a long-term study during which they "shadowed" 24 principals in Chicago from 1977 to 1980 in order to compile a picture of their workday. The principal's time was typically spent in many activities of very short duration, with considerable variety and sudden shifting gears throughout the school day (p. 7).

Due to this hectic pace, little time was allowed for rank-ordering of priorities or serene reflection and thorough decision-making processes. This finding was later substantiated by McEvoy's (1987) analysis of over 1,000 hours of observations and interviews with principals, teachers, and students in Kansas which concluded that 60% to 70% of the principal's day involved informal, brief, fragmented communication.

Further, Smith and Piele (1989) conducted an extensive review of school effectiveness studies which concluded that the role of the principal is critical in the movement toward school effectiveness. They highlighted the following aspects of this role: (a) strong principal leadership, (b) principal participation in the instructional program, (c) high expectations by the principal for all staff and students, and (d) a need for increased control by principals over the functioning of the school.

Keefe, Clark, Nickerson, and Valentine (1983) reported on another comprehensive national study of 50 middle school (i.e., intermediate, middle, and junior high school) principals in the United States who were identified as being effective by regional and state leaders. The selected group represented various school populations, minority cultures, community sizes, and religions. Their analysis (p. 71) resulted in several noteworthy findings, including the following: (a) these principals worked an average of 62 hours per week compared to 52 hours for "typical" principals, (b) they valued their job highly, (c) they perceived their inability to provide teachers with time for planning and professional development as a major roadblock, (d) they viewed climate as an essential aspect

of an effective working relationship, and (e) they were perceived as the primary change agent in the school.

With a similar focus, Dwyer (1984) talked to 42 principals in San Francisco from various types of organizational settings who were nominated by fellow administrators as successful. He concluded that although a simple formula for successful instructional leadership did not exist, the success of the principals was related to their ability to connect instructional leadership activities to the system philosophies and to their visions.

Manasse (1985) also summarized the cumulative research on effective principals to ascertain certain recurring patterns and solid descriptive data about what principals actually do on a daily basis. Although he noted that no single definition of principal effectiveness existed due to situational variations, one commonality became evident: effective principals had visions of schools that reflected established, publicly stated values.

Hostetler (1986) broke with the tradition of previous researchers to explore the ethical use of power in the position due to his concern that principals were acting in ethically questionable ways in order to improve school effectiveness. He concluded that the focus on effectiveness and excellence had caused principals to "lose track of the ethical side of leadership . . . [or] more specifically, the respect for people" (p. 31).

Similarly, Pitner and Hocevar (1987) agreed that the research into principal effectiveness had a considerable number of drawbacks. They suggested that it had failed to produce adequate ways of quantifying leader behavior due to

the following reasons: (a) the impact of situational factors, (b) the lack of congruence between views expressed by teachers with those of other staff members, (c) the inability of single-dimensional measures to quantify daily administrative activities, and (d) the limitations of dominant leadership theories in school settings.

More recently, Johnson (1988) conducted a comprehensive survey of elementary school administrators, associate superintendents, and teachers which indicated that maintenance of an appropriate school climate was the most important criterion for school effectiveness. He suggested that various types of factors affect the perception process: (a) prior social and cultural experience, (b) organizational factors, (c) personality characteristics, and (d) additional person perception factors. These factors contribute to the formation of perceptions of principals with regard to their own leadership effectiveness and the organizational effectiveness of their schools. In addition, he analyzed the data to determine factors which served to constrain the effectiveness of principals; these will be outlined later. Concurrently with Johnson's (1988) study, Sroypan (1988) conducted a descriptive study that surveyed a sample of teachers, principals, and area superintendents for all junior high schools in Alberta. Her results indicated that the best predictor of job satisfaction was the individual's sense of accomplishment, while the most important criteria for assessing principal effectiveness were decision making, communication ability, and expectations of staff performance. Her findings suggested that a strong relationship exists between overall school effectiveness and overall effectiveness of principals, which

was supported by previous authors in this field such as Calabrese (1986), Cuban (1984), Hall et al. (1984), Frase and Hetzel (1990), Fullan (1982), Johnson (1988), Kouzes and Posner (1990), Purkey and Smith (1983), and Renihan and Renihan (1984). It would appear, therefore, that knowledge of possible constraints or barriers to leadership effectiveness would have substantial implications for overall school effectiveness, particularly at the junior high level where minimal research related to school effectiveness has been conducted.

Sergiovanni (1989) criticized the existing status of these previous studies in educational administration because applied science was the dominant metaphor; such a focus, he maintained, used a set of standardized skills and then proceeded to search for contexts in which to implement them. A further problem that he identified in relation to applied science was that stability was required if these strategies were to work; this logically did not fit the complex variety of tasks, the uniqueness of situational factors, the uncertain nature of daily activities, and the value conflicts experienced by school principals. Sergiovanni (1989) concluded that it may be more acceptable to view the principal's role as a logical process of problem solving. Using categories provided by Kozlov (1988), he sorted principals into three categories: (a) "mystics," (b) "neats," and (c) "scruffies." Sergiovanni (1989) concluded that effectiveness in the principal's role is characterized by reflective practice where

> administrators seek to maximize certain (often competing) values within a highly dynamic context with costs and benefits of pattern emphases changing from moment to moment. All of the knowledge available to the applied scientist is important to the reflective practitioner . . . [who] needs to ride the wave of the pattern as it unfolds (p. 10).

As indicated earlier, Sergiovanni (1990) revised his views to formulate a theoretical model which promoted value-added leadership. More recently, in an interview with Brandt (1992), Sergiovanni indicated that the general conception of leadership as direct and interpersonal was an outdated view; he proposed that we view schools as loosely structured communities with specific cultural identities rather than as formal organizations. Brandt (1992) summarized Sergiovanni's viewpoints by indicating that the main change in the leadership role was to supplement the traditional sources of authority (i.e., bureaucratic, psychological, and technical-rational) with two more crucial sources, competence and virtue.

Chance and Grady (1990) reviewed findings reported by Blumberg and Greenfield (1980) and Manasse (1985) which highlighted the importance of establishing a vision as a prominent trait of high performing principals; this vision is "a powerful force that guides, cajoles, directs and facilitates accomplishment" (p. 14) by all members of the school organization.

Lane (1992) also rejected the effective schools research which supported the importance of instructional leadership in favor of a more expansive concept of cultural leadership. He emphasized the importance of variables that form barriers to this role, such as fragmented, unpredictable routines; management-focussed training and evaluation; on-the-job learning obstacles; role ambiguity; lack of support from supervisors; resistance from teachers; and role-constraining

teacher contracts (pp. 86-87). Lane's (1992) position recognized the importance of environmental variables and pressures which required administrators to act as "brokers" who "serve not only to protect instructional improvement . . . but also to promote and disseminate the power of a self-renewing school culture" (p. 95).

Drucker (1992) referred to the previous research on leadership as a combination of gradual improvement, managed evolution with one innovation leading to another, and change which ensures systematic use of opportunities for improvement. He proposed that systematic feedback is the key to effective school operation, indicating that "information up" rather than "information down" is crucial (pp. 329-331). Moreover, he recommended that executives must practice management by walking "outside" rather than "around" in order to forecast changes in needs of our clients (pp. 111-112).

A survey of the research on effective school leadership is beneficial in that it serves to accentuate the positive aspects in a profession plagued by uncertainty and imprecise measures of success. As Miklos (1990) advised, "perhaps the major contribution that these studies have made is to confirm the complexity of this [leadership] phenomenon and the limitations of theories and survey instruments" (pp. 3-12). This conclusion would support the need for additional investigation into the construct of leadership and leadership effectiveness. Further, it indicates that an examination of constraints on effectiveness could provide a unique opportunity for increased knowledge.

Criteria for Assessing Leadership Effectiveness

The literature in the field of school leadership abounds with studies which

attempt to pinpoint the crucial qualities and traits of effective school principals. In order to present a global picture of results from previous research, each major trait will be described with reference to research findings from the past two decades. Logically, no sequential listing ranked in order of importance will be attempted due to the wide variation which exists with regard to the comparative relevance of various traits.

The following qualities were considered by researchers to be significant factors in effective school leadership: (a) integrity--Bennis (1990) and Kouzes and Posner (1990); (b) dedication or a passionate belief in values--Bennis (1990), Duke (1986), Farmer (1979), Frase and Hetzel (1990), Huddle (1984), Kouzes and Posner (1990), Martin and Willower (1984), McEvoy (1987), and Sergiovanni (1990); (c) magnanimity--Bennis (1990); (d) willingness to try new things, tolerate ambiguity, and reject stereotypes--Bennis (1990), Duke (1986), Haughey and Rowley (1991), Kouzes and Posner (1990), and Manasse (1985); (e) empowerment or enabling others to act by fostering collaboration--Duke (1986), Fullan (1982), Haughey and Rowley (1991), Kouzes and Posner (1990), Leithwood and Montgomery (1986), Martin and Willower (1981), Smith and Scott (1990), and Walker (1989); (f) humility--Bennis (1990); (g) educational training and experience--Farmer (1979), Hanke (1988), and Kouzes and Posner (1990); (h) productivity and efficiency--Farmer (1979) and Martin and Willower (1981); (i) leadership, governing, or management through the appropriate use of authority--Farmer (1979), Kouzes and Posner (1990, and McEvoy (1987); (j) political and fiscal

astuteness--Benveniste (1989), Duke (1986), Farmer (1979), Levine (1985), and Martin and Willower (1984); (k) ability to maintain a high degree of stability and control over the external environment--Crowson and Porter-Gehrie (1981); and (l) interpersonal skill--Grab (1991), Hershey and Blanchard (1977), Katz (1975), and Mintzberg (1973).

Although they imposed the caveat that effective principals do not need to possess all of these skills, subsequent researchers reinforced the importance of the aforementioned skills. Lambert (1988) emphasized the need for the leader to develop a school culture which is based on a strong, clearly communicated vision and interactive empowerment for staff. As Johnson (1988) concluded, this multidimensional set of attributes or competencies recommended by researchers as essential for leadership effectiveness spans an extremely varied set of criteria. Similarly, Huddle (1984) concluded that the actions of effective principals "are made up of a myriad of little touches, each one seemingly meaningless, but taken together and viewed from a distance forming a surprisingly sharp picture" (p. 66).

Boyan (1988) examined the literature regarding the variety of skills used by administrators in order to explain the rationale for various administrative behaviors. He pointed out that limited research had been conducted regarding the interaction of personal and situational variables in the study of school administrators at work. With regard to personal variables, Boyan (1988, pp. 81-82) criticized previous research for its focus on describing traits and characteristics rather than analyzing the relationship between personal variables and administrative behavior.

> Altogether, the exploration of the association of personal variables with administrator behavior must be assessed as disappointing, especially because of the heavy loading over a long time of status studies of administrators' traits and characteristics. . . . The descriptive rather than analytic bent . . . has to date contributed remarkably little that enlightens present understanding and/or directs further study of administrators at work.

Holdaway and Ratsoy (1991) summarized research studies to conclude that effective leadership is crucial for school effectiveness; they indicated that although various descriptors of effective leaders were proposed, substantial agreement existed about the following dimensions: vision; proactive stance; structured roles; emphasis on goals and production; skills in curriculum and instruction; human relations, communication, and decision-making; encouragement of high expectations; fostering of high morale; understanding of their schools; courage, judgment, and group leadership skills (p. 4).

Although they supported previous standards of leadership excellence as outlined here, Faidley and Musser (1991) cautioned that a process of gradual, incremental, continual improvement should be employed by principals because excellence is never fully attainable. Brown (1991), on the other hand, contended that educational leaders must acquire new human interrelationship and management skills if they are to deal effectively with the restructuring and major organizational change required to meet the needs of the information age. However, Grab (1991) considered the most important skill for educational leaders to be effective communication.

Thomas and Vornberg (1991) also examined the changing role of the principal in their study of 46 individuals in Texas who were recognized for their

expertise as principals. They designed an evaluation model which outlined specific standards regarding goal setting and implementation, supervision of staff, promotion of positive expectations, evaluation of progress toward goals, organizational ability to accomplish goals with available resources, ability to withstand pressure, and interpersonal competence.

Williamson (1991) focussed more on the junior high setting because he used the recommendations from *Turning points: Preparing American youth for the 21st century* to describe the administrative role for junior high school leaders. This description was comprised of three roles: (a) inspirational leader, (b) human resource developer, and (c) change agent. He listed the following skills as essential for success: (a) understanding adolescents, (b) understanding effective middle level practices, (c) solving problems, (d) tolerating ambiguity, (e) monitoring and adjusting as required, (f) decision making, (g) bringing out the best in people, and (h) balancing daily routines.

Likewise, George and Grebing (1992) reported on an earlier study by George and Anderson (1989) which analyzed 154 administrators from exemplary middle schools in Colorado to determine which strategies will promote long-term effectiveness of middle schools. Participants recommended various strategies including the following: (a) participatory decision making, (b) leadership and philosophical vision, (c) staff selection skills, (d) public relations skills, (e) ability to network, and (f) awareness of the process of change.

In opposition to the belief that traditionally accepted leadership qualities exist, Miller and Hanson (1992) studied four groups of leaders with major

responsibilities from various fields. They concluded that these organizations had selected leaders according to the following behavioral characteristics: (a) ability to influence others, (b) ability to communicate effectively, (c) desire to perform a combination of roles, and (d) desire to fulfill a specific role as part of a team. Although this study was not conducted in an educational setting, the results highlight interesting information regarding leadership effectiveness.

Potential Constraints on Leadership Effectiveness

In order to identify the constraints which impinge upon leadership and school effectiveness, it is useful to differentiate between principals' perceptions of "actual" and "ideal" effectiveness. Fennell (1992) provided an excellent illustration of how restrictions affect administrative behavior: "Principals are expected to operate their schools effectively and efficiently. At the same time, principals appear to be under pressure to provide high degrees of autonomy to teachers" (p. 8). Johns (1987) described this process as a discrepancy theory because "satisfaction is a function of the discrepancy between the job outcomes that are perceived to be obtained" (p. 129) and those actually obtained. His model indicated that individual values and beliefs lead to specific desired job outcomes that result in a knowledge of actual achievements. Eastcott, Holdaway, and Kuiken (1974) listed these five potential benefits of identifying constraints: (a) development of a new perspective on the principal's role, (b) assistance in minimizing inappropriate action and conflict, (c) increased success in limiting the negative effects of these barriers through establishing more appropriate policies or avoiding imminent constraints, (d) enhancement of the decision-making process,

and (e) reduction of conflict within the organization. Clearly, analysis of constraints is worthy of consideration and further study.

The following constraints have been identified by a thorough review of the related literature:

1. *Nature of the role*: this was highlighted by Morris et al. (1982). Due to the hectic pace of the principal's day, little time is available for rank-ordering of priorities or critical reflection and thorough decision making. Sweeney (1986), Martin and Willower (1981), and Mulhauser (1982) reinforced the constraining effect of the multiplicity of excessive administrative demands. Valentine, Clark, Nickerson, and Keefe (1981) reported on the results of the first phase of a survey on middle school principals from each geographic region in the United States. One conclusion of their study indicated that the most frequently reported constraint was the time taken by administrative detail and apathetic or irresponsible parents; time spent with problem students was the next most important factor but the size of the school was not considered to be an important factor. Their list of variables (p. 43) was useful in designing the questionnaire for this study.

Similarly, a study of high school leaders randomly drawn from all American schools was conducted by Pellicer, Anderson, Keefe, Kelley, and McCleary (1988); results indicated that the most frequently listed internal constraints were the following factors: (a) the amount of time spent on administrative duties, (b) the lack of time to fulfill job requirements, (c) the inability to acquire funds, (d) apathetic parents, (e) new state requirements, and (f) a lack of time to

administer student activities. There were also several important external factors listed by respondents: (a) the personalized education movement, (b) child abuse, (c) community participation, and (d) teen sexual activity.

However, Corwin and Borman (1988) focussed their attention on structural constraints affecting the ability of administrators to control the following types of structural constraints or incompatibilities: (a) dilemma of control in that central office administrators are legally and politically responsible for education, (b) dilemma of autonomy because teachers have independent control in the classroom, (c) occupational status which is related to professional norms, (d) order which must be maintained in the process of education, (e) equity which must be used to classify students, and (f) career patterns for teaching. They examined these dilemmas or constraints created by the structural incompatibilities of school systems and proposed that major organizational reforms were required.

Murphy (1987) also discovered that principals are often expected to be "all things to all people" so their average day is characterized by a variety of fragmented or unpredictable activities, brief attention paid to issues, and lack of control over how they spend their time. Similarly, Bennis's (1990) self-analysis concluded that "routine work drives out nonroutine work and smothers to death all creative planning, [and] all fundamental change" (p. 15).

2. *Degree of stress associated with the role*: this was noted by Lyons (1990) who indicated that several aspects of the principal's role resulted in a high level of individual stress, including role conflict, instructional leadership, the high activity level, external political pressures, the need to resolve problems, and the demand

for efficient time management. Furthermore, Mulhauser (1982) and Martin and Willower (1981) maintained that it is not uncommon for principals to feel inadequate and overwhelmed due to the great disparity which exists between the theoretical role description provided in the literature and the actual daily experiences in their schools.

3. *Isolation from teachers*: Huddle (1984) concluded that isolation created difficulties in developing a strong set of beliefs and a collaborative approach to goal attainment. Mulhauser (1982) also alluded to the constraints created by the relationship between the principal and subordinates due to the power held by the principal to evaluate and reward. Similarly, Benveniste (1989) listed physical constraints which induced this isolation in addition to other constraints such as lack of adequate resources.

4. *Provincial legislation and district expectations*: this was highlighted by Lavery (1973) who identified the difficulty of promoting excellence through creativity and choice when curriculum requirements, operational guidelines, and policy mandates control individual actions. Murphy (1987) contended that district expectations can serve as constraints due to the multiplicity of roles principals fulfill as building managers, political representatives, and instructional leaders. Benveniste (1989) also described political constraints which often cause principals to reject important factors in favor of measurable, tangible activities such as evaluation procedures.

5. *Skills, attitudes, and effort extended by subordinates*: this was reflected in Mulhauser's (1982) and Benveniste's (1989) findings which indicated that

ineffective performance by subordinates who work within the school organization creates a constraint for the leadership effectiveness of the principal in that extra support, supervision, assistance, direction, and resources are required to improve their performance. According to Murphy (1987), this situation is compounded due to the fact that often minimal rewards or sanctions can be used by principals to promote effective performance.

6. *Lack of a firm knowledge base regarding the nature of curriculum and instruction*: Murphy (1987) alleged that principals often have inadequate training, time, and knowledge to deal appropriately with supervision of instruction, although research studies which focus on effective school criteria placed a high degree of importance on this aspect of the principal's role.

This brief summary of related literature indicates a need for more research regarding constraints on leadership and potential resolutions for these aspects of the principal's role.

Junior High Schools

Introduction

Since the inception of designated schools for adolescents, various terms and grade configurations have been explored throughout North America. The term "junior high school" is commonly used in Canada to refer to a school which offers programs for students in grades 7 to 9, whereas the term "middle school" which is often used in the United States to refer to a school which offers programs for students in grades 5 to 8, grades 4 to 7, or grades 5 to 7. Due to the overlap of grades, literature from schools with all types of grade configurations for

adolescents had relevance as a partial foundation for this study.

Characteristics of Adolescents

Practitioners are well aware that the junior high school presents an educational setting which differs significantly from the elementary and high school levels.

Due to the extreme variations in maturity and vast amount of change they experience, adolescents have a fragile emotional and psychological state which requires a school climate geared to respond to their needs for acceptance, belonging, responsibility, and recognition. Maynard (1986) referred to adolescents as "transescents" because they are in a constant state of change between childhood and adulthood in all areas of growth. He indicated that intellectually they vary "from the pre-operational cognitive level through the concrete level to the formal, mature level of abstract thinking" (p. 21) and emotionally they are in a constant state of flux ranging from confidence and independence to inferiority and insecurity. Maynard (1986) recommended that junior high schools capitalize on the diversity of "transescents" which included such strategies as developing decision-making skills through specific instructional sessions. He emphasized the importance of a variety of teaching methods, materials, styles, and philosophies.

Williamson and Johnston (1991) and Mosher (1980) agreed that the junior high school is a transitional setting which required a program that meets the personal and educational needs of adolescents. They highlighted several developmental needs as being prominent for educators, including a sense of independence, body change, self-concept or individuality, and diversification of

interests.

Strategies for Meeting Adolescent Needs in Junior High Schools

Recent studies on the middle school have recommended a host of useful ideas for reforming the education of young adolescents. Jackson (1990) based his response on the findings of the Carnegie Council of Adolescent Development (1989); he identified characteristics of school organization and leadership which would be effective at this level. He attested to the merit of tracking by achievement level through various program offerings, providing advisor groups where students and adults could create meaningful personal relationships, and developing partnership programs designed to re-engage schools with communities.

Research has also been conducted by Alexander (1981) and Toepfer (1990) to investigate the characteristics of middle schools with various grade configurations in relation to meeting the needs of adolescents and to provide information about the establishment, characteristics, and goals of middle schools and their administrators. Results of this research indicated that junior high schools were established to bridge the gap between student-centered elementary and subject-centered high schools, to serve the unique needs of this age group, and to solve administrative problems regarding excessive enrollment in each facility. There are no conclusive results to support any particular grade configuration as being the most appropriate. Recent studies by Alexander and McEwin (1989), Koerner (1989), Lounsbury (1990), Smith and Scott (1990), MacIver (1990), and Quattrone (1990) have identified potential areas of reform required by middle schools if they are to meet adolescent needs including revised

in-service and pre-service for teachers, increased involvement with the larger civic community, greater focus on personal and social aspects of development, creation of a community orientation in schools rather than an impersonal bureaucratic approach, and inclusion of reflective dialogue opportunities for all stakeholders. Williamson (1992) maintained that middle schools with students in grades 6 to 8 were far less successful than junior high schools because socialization and maturation needs for students in grades 7 to 9 are more homogeneous. The focus on a need for reform in the junior high setting indicates that characteristics of effectiveness could be specific to this level and worthy of further investigation.

Furthermore, Eisner (1991) postulated that junior high schools with departmentalized structures lack the counselling capacity for appropriate pastoral care which he considered crucial in a society where "25% of school-aged children are raised in single-parent homes" (p. 16). Earlier, Epstein and Toepfer (1978) had also highlighted the need for a learning environment that caters to the adolescent need for "social and emotional self-clarification and growth as a basis for working to maximize cognitive learning during these years" (p. 656).

Evolution of Research on Effective Junior High Schools

In response to concerns regarding academic adequacy, standards of behavior, and the need to address higher level thinking strategies, several recent studies on the middle school have recommended a host of useful ideas for reforming the education of young adolescents.

Johnston and de Perez (1985) summarized the characteristics of effective schools as noted previously by focussing on the aspect of climate. After studying

schools in four American states, they proposed that there are four climates to consider in promoting the characteristics of effective schools: (a) physical, (b) academic, (c) social-emotional, and (d) organizational. Similarly, Garvin (1986) explored the common denominators through his study of 261 effective junior high schools in New England which resulted in a very similar set of characteristics to those identified earlier in effective schools research: (a) a clearly defined and articulated mission; (b) effective leadership based on human, management, and technical skills; (c) student-centered teachers; (d) strong parent involvement; (e) ongoing goal development and evaluation; and (f) a quality of life which promotes happiness, pride, and confidence.

The first major research project conducted on schools for adolescents in the United States, entitled *Turning points: Preparing American youth for the 21st century*, was prepared by the Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development (1989). It recommended the following essentials for improving junior high schools: (a) ensuring success for all students, (b) creating a community for learning, (c) empowering teachers and administrators, (d) teaching a common core of knowledge, (e) preparing teachers for the middle grades, (f) reengaging families in the education of adolescents, (g) connecting schools with communities, and (h) improving academic performance through better health and fitness. Stephens (1991) commented that these suggestions are in fact not new but had been the hallmarks of effective programs for adolescents for the past three decades, so he supported their use for promoting the required school transition. Gill (1992) extended these findings by conducting a study to determine the

perceptions of principals in "schools of excellence" as identified by the Department of Education with regard to the importance of recommendations from the *Turning points* reports. The above-mentioned list is organized according to his results, with the first item being the most important based on viewpoints of his respondents.

However, Sizer (in Walberg and Lane, 1989) cautioned that although no blueprint existed for a "model" school, there are several common principles of "essential schools." These included aspects such as focussing on essential skills and areas of knowledge in language and mathematics, using a generalist approach to instruction, personalizing programs for adolescents, helping students learn how to learn, and providing time for collective planning by staff.

Williamson and Johnston (1991, p. 72) later summarized different research articles on effective junior high school programs to provide a list of common elements which includes the following aspects: (a) a comprehensive academic program that stresses skill development, (b) exploratory and enrichment program offerings, (c) various instructional methods such as individualized instruction, independent study, and inquiry-oriented sessions, (d) flexibility in scheduling and student grouping, (e) cooperative planning and team teaching, (f) planned advisor programs, (g) cooperative rather than competitive activities, (h) interdisciplinary program offerings, (i) emphasis on student independence, (j) opportunities to formulate personal values and standards, and (k) physical and health education programs. Wilmore (1992) reiterated several of these elements in her summary of keys to establishing an effective school climate.

Vatterott (1991) focussed on a more generic element of Missouri schools for adolescents when she proposed an atmosphere of pervasive caring because "teacher behavior is by far the most influential factor in creating student beliefs and behaviors that enhance achievement" (p. 3). Her list of practices and indicators promoted a collaboration among school staff members, principals, and students where students contribute as key members of the school community.

With a similar focus on climate, Eisner (1991) postulated that junior high schools with departmentalized structures lack the counselling capacity for appropriate pastoral care which he considered crucial in a society where "25% of school-aged children are raised in single-parent homes" (p. 16). George and Grebing (1992) agreed that the characteristics of adolescents and the developmental changes which occur during junior high school years require a great deal of energy, enthusiasm, and empathy for educators.

Urquhart (1985, p. 1) provided this summary of the essential elements to consider in junior high schools:

> If students are to emerge from the chaos of adolescence as mature, responsible, and independent adults, it is imperative that the home and school share the responsibility for providing appropriate learning experiences . . . designed to allow students to explore themselves, their world, and the people in it, and develop the skills and attitudes that will enable them to meet and adapt to the unknown challenges of the future with confidence in themselves and their abilities. Delivered in a positive and supportive environment, appropriate learning experiences will maximize the potential for individual growth.

Conceptual Framework

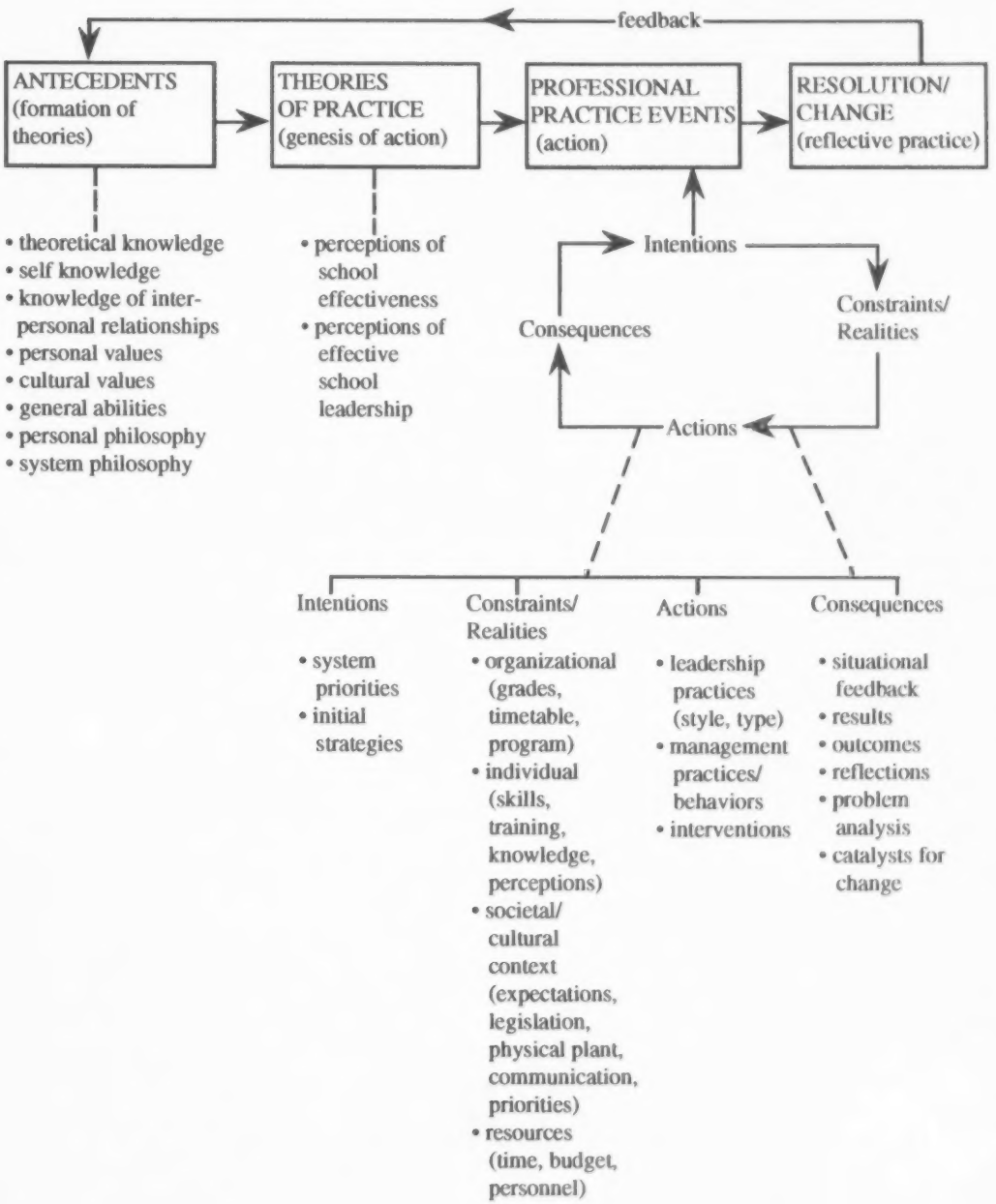
The study of perceptions regarding effectiveness of principals and schools as organizations is an area of extreme interest due to the implications for all

organizational members. Figure 2.1 presents a conceptual framework based on an outline proposed by Sergiovanni (1989, p. 15). It was designed to incorporate all interrelated components of the school organization into the analysis of constraints on effective administrative leadership and school operation. The major purpose of this conceptual framework was to provide a basis for the collection, analysis, and interpretation of data so it was refined as insights were gained.

There is a dynamic interplay among all major elements of the model because the outlined process is progressive and interdependent. Each member of a school organization possesses certain antecedents for action which are comprised of background knowledge, values, philosophies, and general abilities. This foundation is in a constant state of flux because one's knowledge is constantly expanding as a result of daily experiences within the school organization. These antecedents formulate the individual theories of practice for school leaders to develop perceptions regarding experiences within the organization. Perceptions of overall school effectiveness and effective school leadership are formulated by each individual in the organization. Logically, the antecedents and theories of practice combine to dictate individual actions. Unfortunately, constraints imposed on these actions may operate to prevent individuals from performing their roles according to their intentions, thereby restricting the application of background theories, understanding, and perceptions. Therefore, analysis of constraints and consequences of actions in relation to beliefs and knowledge is an essential stage in all professional practice.

Figure 2.1

Formulation of Effective/Reflective Practice in School Organizations
(Adapted from Sergiovanni, 1989, p. 15).



Ultimately, this analysis and reflective practice should serve as a catalyst to promote change in actions designed to meet organizational and personal goals. Analysis of the incremental changes which result should expand the knowledge, values, abilities, and philosophies of the individual. Through this process, individuals such as principals are able to increase their effectiveness and ultimately contribute to increased overall effectiveness for the organization.

The exploration of constraints upon effectiveness of principals within a school organization is a deceptively simple and yet potentially powerful source of information which could lead to a major improvement in the quality of education provided within our schools.

Summary

This section of the thesis presents an extensive review of literature regarding the themes of school effectiveness, leadership, and junior high schools.

Closely related to each of these themes is the influence that perception has in analyzing characteristics and illustrations of effectiveness. With regard to school effectiveness, perceptions of all stakeholders are formed in relation to previous experience, knowledge, and critical analysis; these perceptions heavily influence attitudes and behavior. Researchers need to fully comprehend the perceptions of administrators if they are to accurately analyze the essential qualities of school effectiveness. A number of different theoretical models highlight the multi-dimensional nature of the concept of school effectiveness. Consequently, a process model or open systems theory of organizations is the most appropriate when analyzing effectiveness; the impact of human involvement

and numerous environmental factors cannot be overlooked. An analysis of these models led to the conclusion that no consensus existed with regard to the actual meaning of school effectiveness. The evolution of research in this area was initiated with studies conducted by Coleman (1966) who proposed that schooling cannot compensate for economic and political inequality. Certain studies highlighted criticisms of previous research on effective schools. For example, Cuban (1983), Rowan et al. (1983), and Ralph and Fennessey (1983) conducted extensive reviews of related literature and concluded that no clear set of guidelines exists to create effective schools due to the lack of generalizable empirical evidence.

The results obtained by Sroypan (1988), who studied junior high schools in Alberta, presented a useful foundation for this research. She reported that the six most important criteria for evaluating junior high school effectiveness were school goals, staff morale, display of leadership by the principal, staff job satisfaction, acknowledgement of achievement, and use of appropriate teaching methods. In terms of judging overall effectiveness of principals, she found that the six most critical factors were promotion of high expectations among staff, provision of feedback to staff, improvement of staff performance, selection of qualified staff, fostering of high morale, and coordination of school goals.

Further, the following process variables were identified as critical elements of effective schools by such researchers as Purkey and Smith (1983), Renihan and Renihan (1984), and Duren (1992): (a) school-site management, (b) instructional leadership by the principal, (c) staff stability, (d) parental involvement and

support, (e) curriculum articulation, (f) schoolwide recognition of academic success, (g) maximized learning time, and (h) district support through assistance with change. In addition, culture variables were recommended by several researchers, including Fullan (1983), Murphy and Hallinger (1985), Johnson (1988), and Blum (1984), as being required for effective organizational change and goal attainment: (a) a safe, comfortable environment; (b) collaborative planning; (c) a sense of community; (d) clear goals and purposes; (e) order and discipline; (f) high expectations for achievement; (g) multiple opportunities for student involvement; and (h) establishment of a specific culture. No attempt to assess the importance of each variable was made because situational elements were considered to be so influential in determining the value of each characteristic.

Moreover, various research studies conducted by such individuals as Harrison (1987), Renihan and Renihan (1984), Murphy (1987), and Goodlad (1990) emphasized the significance of the following types of constraints on school effectiveness: (a) organizational size and complexity, (b) overall purpose, (c) institutional nature of the setting, (d) routineness of procedures, (e) workforce composition, (f) degree of bureaucratization, (g) stage in organizational life cycle, (h) strategy for coping with the environment, (i) competitiveness and public support for education, (j) the seduction of technology, (k) power games and territorialism, (l) tradition, and (m) ineffective leadership.

With regard to leadership, the second area covered in this review, it is

imperative to understand the role that perception plays in interpreting paradigms of effective leadership. Conceptualizations of leadership effectiveness have changed from the former focus on characteristics such as rationality, adherence to policy, and achievement of results to the emerging perspective where effective leaders are viewed as value-oriented individuals who empower followers and adapt to a wide variety of situations or changes. Sergiovanni's (1984) description of five leadership forces (i.e., technical, human, educational, symbolic, and cultural) was one of the theoretical models of leadership which offered a pragmatic approach. The different images presented by Miklos (1983) also attempted to explain how administrators make a contribution to effective school operation (i.e., manager, facilitator, politician, and leader). Several models incorporated the impact of situational elements on leadership effectiveness (McNamara, 1968; Mulhauser, 1982; Pitner & Hocevar, 1987; Sergiovanni, 1989). They outlined the following characteristics which affect the favorableness of a situation based on Fiedler's contingency theory (Johns, 1987): (a) leader-member relations, (b) task structure, and (c) position power.

The evolution of research regarding leadership effectiveness from the early 1960's until the present time is worthy of analysis. Research findings such as those reported by Keefe, Clark, Nickerson, and Valentine (1983) can be synthesized into a list of leadership traits, skills, and abilities that are considered to be essential for effective school leaders, including the competencies of goal setting, monitoring, evaluating, communicating, scheduling, staffing, modelling, governing, and providing instructional leadership. Furthermore, there was support

voiced for inclusion of the following leadership qualities by several researchers including Bennis (1990), Frase and Hetzel (1990), Kouzes and Posner (1990), and McEvoy (1987): (a) integrity, (b) dedication to values, (c) magnanimity, (d) willingness to try new things and reject stereotypes, (e) empowerment, (f) humility, (g) educational training and experience, (h) productivity and efficiency, (i) leadership through appropriate use of authority, (j) political and fiscal astuteness, (k) ability to maintain a high degree of stability, and (l) interpersonal skill.

The third area of the literature review centered around junior high schools. The following characteristics were identified in several research studies (Lounsbury, 1990; Smith and Scott, 1990; Johnston and de Perez, 1985) as being common denominators of effective junior high schools: (a) a clearly defined and articulated mission, (b) effective leadership, (c) student-centered teachers, (d) strong parent involvement, (e) ongoing goal development and evaluation, and (f) a quality of life which promotes happiness, pride, and confidence.

With regard to implications related to grade configurations, the consensus of different school systems and researchers was that no specific grade pattern (i.e., two-tier or three-tier systems) was found to be the most effective. Rather, specific school characteristics and qualities such as those identified previously, were a more crucial determinant of success and effectiveness. The evolution of research findings conducted in this area commenced with The Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development (1989) *Turning points: Preparing American youth for the 21st century* which was the first major research project conducted on schools for

adolescents in the United States. This report outlined the following essentials for improving junior high schools: (a) ensuring success for all students, (b) creating a community for learning, (c) empowering teachers and administrators, (d) teaching a common core of knowledge, (e) preparing teachers for middle grades, (f) reengaging families in the education of adolescents, (g) connecting schools with communities, and (h) improving academic performance through better health and fitness. Subsequent authors such as Williamson and Johnston (1991), Vatterott (1991), and Eisner (1991) included additional elements such as emphasis on student independence, planned advisor programs, variety of instructional strategies, collaboration among stakeholders, and pastoral care and counselling.

The conceptual framework (Figure 2.1), based on an outline proposed by Sergiovanni (1989), highlights the essence of the dynamic interplay among all major stakeholders in educational organizations and all elements of school operation. The significance of constraint identification and resolution in the enhancement of school and leadership effectiveness forms the foundation for this thesis. In organizations, conflicts between personal philosophies and system philosophies are probably common and need to be acknowledged when models of this nature are interpreted.

Chapter 3

Research Methodology

This chapter provides information about the following aspects of this study: the research instruments, the data-collection procedures, and the data-analysis methods.

The Research Instruments

According to the typology provided by Miklos (1990), this study is descriptive/analytical because the purpose is "to go beyond description to probe for similarities and differences, to identify trends, and to offer possible explanations of findings" (p. 2-2).

Multiple methods of data collection are frequently used to enhance the validity of the data collected. This study relied on two major forms of data collection: (a) a questionnaire, and (b) a semi-structured interview associated with a school tour.

The Questionnaire

Kidder (1981) outlined several major benefits gained by using mailed questionnaires: (a) low cost, (b) anonymity, (c) lack of pressure on the respondent for an immediate response, (d) reduction of interviewer bias, and (e) increased potential for surveying a large number of respondents. The use of questionnaires furnished a means of receiving information from all junior high school principals in the province with regard to their perceptions regarding constraints on effectiveness.

The questionnaire provided the following types of data: (a) personal data

regarding age, experience, amount of time spent at the current school, and training; (b) school data regarding type of school system, type of community, and the number of students; (c) information about the extent to which various factors served as a constraint on their role as a principal; (d) information about the extent to which various factors served as a constraint on the effectiveness of their school; and (e) an opportunity to provide additional comments regarding this topic. The items on the list of constraints on principal effectiveness and school effectiveness were selected according to results of the pilot study, an initial analysis of related literature, and conversations with colleagues.

The questionnaire was administered only to principals because a review of the literature indicated that the role of the leader in school organizations was extremely important for overall school effectiveness.

The Semi-Structured Interview

The advantages of interviews listed by Kidder (1981) were relevant for this study: (a) the response rate is often larger for interview formats than for questionnaires, (b) the opportunity exists for obtaining greater detail in the information provided, (c) increased freedom is present for respondents to express their views, and (d) the inability of certain respondents to complete questionnaires is resolved. Interviews provided a means of clarifying, expanding, and enriching upon the information from previous research studies and questionnaire results which were summarized in the literature review.

A semi-structured interview was administered to a sample of 10 junior high principals in Alberta. The schools for the interviews were selected to represent a

sample of public and separate schools in the two major urban districts and the rural districts. Individuals were selected based on conversations with district office personnel. Each interview was conducted on the school site and recorded with permission for transcription; furthermore, additional information was gained by observing daily operations in each school setting, including school climate, interaction among stakeholders, communication patterns, student behavior, and physical setting. This information was acquired by the researcher during time spent at each site through conversations with students, staff members, parents, and community members, and through personal observations. In order to maintain confidentiality, responses were summarized, specific situational data was eliminated from the results reports, and personal information was omitted.

The nature of the questions used in the interviews provided the following types of data: (a) personal data regarding age, experience, amount of time spent at the current school, and training; (b) school data regarding type of school system, type of community, and the number of students; (c) goals identified for the term; (d) opinions regarding criteria for judging school effectiveness; (e) criteria for judging leadership effectiveness; (f) constraints on identified goals; (g) strategies used to resolve constraints on school effectiveness; (h) strategies used to resolve constraints on leadership effectiveness; and (i) one illustration of a goal, plan, constraints, and resolutions. In addition, respondents had the opportunity to elaborate on specific issues throughout the interview session and school tour. Each interview and tour lasted approximately three hours. Some of the respondents were contacted again following analysis of the questionnaire and

interview data in order to clarify specific comments or issues raised during data analysis.

The Pilot Study

A pilot study of the interview and questionnaire items was conducted using a small sample of five respondents from an urban school setting. This study was undertaken to attain the following goals: (a) to explore unforeseen aspects of the data-collection methodology; (b) to assist in development of in-depth interviewing skills; (c) to explore potential strengths, weaknesses, and concerns in relation to the proposed methodology; (d) to gather information related to constraints on school and leadership effectiveness; (e) to provide information about the feasibility of the study; and (f) to identify possible characteristics of leadership and school effectiveness. Semi-structured interview questions were divided into the following categories: (a) personal data regarding age, experience, amount of time spent at the current school, and training; (b) school data regarding type of school system, type of community, and the number of students; (c) perceptions regarding constraints on school effectiveness; (d) perceptions regarding constraints on principal effectiveness; (e) perceptions regarding the relationship that exists between principal and school effectiveness; (f) proposed strategies for increasing effectiveness by resolving constraints; and (g) additional comments. Schools for the pilot study were selected to ensure representation in relation to school size, socioeconomic environment, speciality program, age of the principal, and logistics. Content analysis was conducted on the responses and comments from the respondents were assessed in relation to information from the literature review,

assessment comments made by the advisor, personal impressions, and comments made during an informal pilot survey conducted with graduate students in Educational Administration at the University of Alberta.

Validity of the Instruments

Kidder (1981) referred to validity as "the capacity of a measuring instrument to predict what it was designed to predict . . . [in order to determine] the accuracy of observations" (p. 450). With regard to the semi-structured interview and questionnaire, several procedures were used to improve the accuracy and representativeness of the data-collection processes. Initially, a pilot study was conducted to ensure that the structured portion of the interview and questionnaire contained all potentially relevant constraints upon school and leadership effectiveness. A review of relevant literature and an examination of related research studies were used in addition to conversations with practitioners and graduate students in the preparation of the pilot study. Second, items were written in a manner which was intended to be as clear, concise, and complete as possible in order to obtain full, detailed, accurate responses. During the interviews, the researcher orally rephrased, repeated, and summarized comments made by the respondents to ensure that their responses were accurately recorded and represented. Further, the researcher conducted follow-up telephone conversations with respondents in order to clarify specific issues resulting from data analysis. In addition, Sroypan's (1988) survey of junior high schools was used in establishing parameters for this study in that other aspects of effectiveness were explored. Advisors also assessed the appropriateness of the data-collection

instruments to ensure that they were technically accurate and their input was solicited in designing strategies for avoidance of potential interviewer bias.

Reliability of the Instruments

Kidder (1981) presented a continuum to differentiate reliability and validity; it provided a correlation between maximally similar measures and maximally different measures of validity. Various strategies were used in the data-collection process to enhance the transferability of the interview and the questionnaire in order to ensure that the same information would be provided from one measurement situation to the next. Urban and rural schools from various districts were selected for the interview and all junior high schools were selected for the questionnaire in order to receive data from as many different settings within the province as possible. Transferability was facilitated by formulating a "thick" description for each respondent interviewed, as recommended by Lincoln and Guba (1985). Situational elements were identified clearly and detailed observations were made during the school tour in order to determine whether results may be generalizable to any particular organizational setting.

The Guttman Split-Half reliability analysis correlates the results which have been obtained from two halves of the same research instrument. This technique was used to assess the reliability of the questionnaire items; items for both Questions 10 and 11 were divided into the first half and the second half for this calculation. The following coefficients were obtained:

1. Constraints on leadership effectiveness: 0.90

2. Constraints on school effectiveness: 0.87

These results indicated that the instrument was highly reliable because the two halves for each question had similar results.

Data Collection

A questionnaire and a semi-structured interview with a school tour were used to collect data from principals of junior high schools in Alberta. The timeline, population, interview sample, and procedures used for distribution and collection of questionnaires are outlined below.

Timeline

The study was conducted according to the timeline outlined below:

1. November, 1991: Pilot study;
2. January - February, 1992: Data collection--questionnaires;
3. February - March, 1992: Data collection--interviews;
4. April - August, 1992: Data analysis;
5. September - December, 1992: Preparation of first draft; and
6. January - August, 1993: Revisions and preparation of final draft.

The Population

For the questionnaire, the respondent group included all junior high principals in the province; a total of 94 individuals responded which represented 87% of the principals. In addition to providing personal data and school data, the principals were asked to rate various constraints on principal and school effectiveness from a list compiled with information from the pilot study and related literature. The researcher selected principals as the only group of

respondents for two reasons: (a) the importance of the role of the principal in promoting school effectiveness, according to findings from researchers such as Boyer (1988), Manasse (1985), and Peters and Waterman (1982), and (b) the opportunity to expand upon recent research conducted in Alberta with principals.

The Interview Sample

The respondent group for the interview was composed of 10 principals, which represents approximately 10% of the junior high principals in the province. A purposive sample of principals was selected in order to provide a cross-section according to geographic location, number of years of administrative experience, size of school, religious affiliation of the school, and type of district. Three principals from the two large urban boards and four principals from rural boards were selected. The characteristics of the respondents were identified as personal data for each interview.

Distribution and Collection of Questionnaires

A Research Ethics Review Application was submitted and approved by the Department of Educational Administration at the University of Alberta in December, 1991. In January, 1992, a Research Application Form was submitted and approved by the Field Experiences Department of the Faculty of Education at the University of Alberta. Applications requesting permission to conduct the study were made to central office personnel for four of the districts which require formal approval for all research projects.

In January, 1992, a letter requesting assistance in completing the questionnaire (Appendix C) was mailed to the majority of principals in the

province with a copy of the questionnaire (Appendix A), a response form (Appendix C), and two self-addressed envelopes. Because principals in one district were temporarily on strike, the same package was mailed in February to principals of that district. The purpose of this letter was to solicit their assistance, outline the purposes of the study, describe procedures used to ensure anonymity, and explain plans for conducting the interviews. The separate response form was designed to allow for anonymity but to determine who had not responded to the initial request. In early February, 1992, a follow-up letter (Appendix C) with a response form, two self-addressed envelopes, and a questionnaire (Appendix A) were mailed to non-respondents. In late February, 1992, a similar package was mailed for the second time to non-respondents.

For the interview, participants were contacted by telephone to explain the purposes of the interview, outline the procedures planned, solicit their participation, and arrange for an appropriate time. A letter (Appendix D) was mailed to all interview participants in early February; the purposes of this letter were to thank them for agreeing to participate, to reinforce the confidentiality of responses, and to confirm details regarding the date and time of the interview and school tour.

By the end of March, 1992, all interviews were completed and 99 response forms were returned for the questionnaires; five principals refused to participate in the study indicating that they lacked sufficient time to do so; therefore, 94 questionnaires out of a total of 108 were completed, which reflected an 87% return rate.

Data Analysis

The major goal of this study was to determine constraints involved with implementation of the criteria considered necessary by researchers in this field for effective school operation and effective leadership, and to determine the relationship between these two concepts for junior high schools in the province of Alberta. Therefore, the data were analyzed in relation to the following purposes: (a) to summarize the data related to the characteristics of effectiveness considered to be most important in junior high schools, (b) to summarize the data related to effective leadership competencies for principals in junior high schools, and (c) to describe the constraints which are associated with the differences between actual and preferred levels of school and principal effectiveness, as perceived by principals. Content and statistical analyses were used to interpret data from the interviews and the questionnaires.

Harrison (1987) described organizational diagnosis as a process which "involved the use of behavioral science knowledge to assess an organization's current state and to help discover routes to its improvement" (p. 1). This research study was based on a diagnostic approach in that identification of current views of actual and theoretical effectiveness were analyzed to determine potential constraints which need to be averted for enhanced effectiveness. Harrison (1987, pp. 15-16) divided this facet of the diagnostic process into five main stages: (a) interpreting the initial statement of the problem, (b) redefining the problem, (c) understanding the current state, (d) identifying the forces for and against change, and (e) developing workable solutions. These stages are inherent in the

analysis of potential constraints on principal and organizational effectiveness at the school and system levels.

Harrison (1987) provided support for the research methodology used in this study by highlighting the special circumstances involved when identifying constraints:

> Because actual organizational practices often run counter to official mandates, it is usually necessary to gather data on them through direct observations, intensive interviewing, or the analysis of organizational records. . . . Open or semi-structured interviews should obtain explicit descriptions of how the respondents act in a range of work situations, rather than generalizations or expressions of attitudes, because explicit behavioral reports are somewhat less subject to bias (pp. 88-89).

Harrison (1987) summarized his recommendations by indicating that diagnosis is an essential strategy for improving organizational effectiveness. If individuals use the diagnostic feedback constructively and plan to implement appropriate actions, then the potentially negative effect of constraints on effectiveness can be reduced or eliminated.

Statistical Analysis of the Questionnaire Data

Several techniques were used to analyze data collected from respondents who completed the questionnaires. Initially, variables were ranked from lowest to highest according to the means for responses regarding constraints on school effectiveness and constraints on principal effectiveness. This provided information about the factors which were considered to be the most and least important as constraints on both school and principal effectiveness. In addition, percentages of responses for each category were compared to determine which factors formed clusters of similar responses; identification of clusters provided information about

which factors were uniformly selected or not selected by a large number of principals within the province. Subsequently, a descriptive analysis of means was conducted to determine substantial ($\geqslant$ 0.5) differences based on the following personal and school-related data: (a) highest degree for educational training of the principal, (b) years of experience as a principal in the school, (c) years the school has been in operation, (d) age of the principal, (e) type of school system, (f) type of community in which the school is located, (g) total number of years served as principal, and (h) number of students enrolled in the school.

Content Analysis of the Written Responses From the Questionnaire

Content analysis was conducted on the written responses and comments completed with the questionnaires. Comparisons and summaries of the types of information included were outlined in relation to the compilation of results for questions related to constraints on school and leadership effectiveness (i.e., questions #10, #11, and #12). The conceptual framework was used as the basis for analysis and key themes were identified in relation to findings from a review of related literature. Illustrative comments which substantiated questionnaire findings were included with the data analysis. Sample responses were used to illustrate main conclusions resulting from data analysis.

Analysis of Interview Data

Each interview was tape-recorded and transcribed in order to summarize key issues raised by the respondents regarding constraints and characteristics of school and principal effectiveness according to respondent perceptions. Sample responses were also used to illustrate major conclusions of this research study.

Summary

Two main strategies were used to collect data from respondents: (a) a questionnaire, and (b) a semi-structured interview. Initially a pilot study was conducted in order to gather data regarding construction of the questionnaire and the interview instruments. The questionnaire was mailed to all junior high principals in the province; the first section requested information regarding school and personal characteristics. It also included a list of variables which were to be ranked in terms of importance as constraints on principal effectiveness and another section of variables to be ranked in terms of importance as constraints on school effectiveness. Various methods of data analysis were used to summarize information regarding variables perceived to be constraints on school and principal effectiveness, including the following: (a) comparison of percentage distributions for responses to each question, (b) comparison of means, (c) factor analysis, and (d) content analysis for written responses or comments made by respondents on the questionnaire.

In addition, a semi-structured interview was used with 10% of the principals in the province to provide in-depth information regarding constraints on effectiveness. Content analysis was used to summarize information gained from analyzing interview transcripts.

Chapter 4

Profile of the Respondents

This chapter provides a summary profile of the principals who responded to the questionnaires and interviews as part of the data-gathering process for this study. A total of 94 principals responded to the questionnaire and 10 principals were interviewed. First, the personal characteristics of the respondents are described, followed by the professional and organizational characteristics of the principals involved in the questionnaire. Finally, information about the personal and organizational characteristics of principals and schools involved in the interviews is summarized.

Personal Characteristics of the Questionnaire Respondents

Information about personal characteristics of schools for principals who responded to the questionnaire is provided according to sex and age. The frequency and percentage frequency distributions of these personal characteristics is provided in Table 4.1. A total of 90.3% of the respondents were male and 9.7% were female. The majority of the respondents were between 46 and 55 years of age; none of the principals were younger than 36 years of age. A total of 7 principals were 56 years of age or older; 5 were between 36 and 40 years of age.

Professional Characteristics of the Questionnaire Respondents

The professional characteristics of the respondents are described in relation to the following aspects: (a) number of years served as a principal, (b) number of years served as the principal of the current school, and (c) the highest qualification earned for professional training.

Table 4.1

Frequency, Percentage Frequency, and Cumulative Percentage Frequency Distributions of Personal Characteristics of Principals (n=94)

Personal characteristics	f	%f	Cum %f
Sex			
Male	85	90.3	90.3
Female	9	9.7	100.0
Age			
36-40	5	5.3	5.3
41-45	19	20.2	25.5
46-50	31	33.0	58.5
51-55	32	34.0	92.6
56 or older	7	7.4	100.0

Number of Years Served as Principal

The numbers of years served as principal are summarized in Table 4.2. The majority of the principals had from 4-6 years of experience and from 10-12 years of experience. A total of 4.3% of the principals had 1 year of experience and 2.1% had 24 years or more of experience.

Table 4.2

Frequency, Percentage Frequency, and Cumulative Percentage Frequency Distributions for Years Served as Principal (n=94)

Years of experience as principal	f	%f	Cum %f
1	4	4.3	4.3
2-3	10	10.6	14.9
4-6	18	19.1	34.0
7-9	13	13.8	47.9
10-12	18	19.1	67.0
13-15	7	7.4	74.5
16-18	8	8.5	83.0
19-21	10	10.6	93.6
22-24	4	4.3	97.9
24 or more	2	2.1	100.0

Number of Years Served as Principal of Current School

The frequencies and percentage distributions of years served by principals at their current schools are outlined in Table 4.3. The highest frequency of the respondents, a total of 31.9%, had spent from 2-3 years at the current school while only 4.3% had spent more than 13 years at the current school. A total of 92.6% of the principals had spent between 1 and 9 years at their current schools.

Table 4.3

Frequency, Percentage Frequency, and Cumulative Percentage Frequency Distributions of Years Served as Principal of Current School (n=94)

Years of experience as principal in current school	f	%f	Cum %f
1	20	21.3	21.3
2-3	30	31.9	53.2
4-6	22	23.4	76.6
7-9	15	16.0	92.6
10-12	3	3.2	92.6
13-15	1	1.1	96.8
16-18	2	2.1	98.9
19-21	1	1.1	100.0

Highest Qualification of the Principal

The frequency and percentage frequency distributions of the highest qualification attained by the principals are reported in Table 4.4. A total of 47.9% of the respondents had a master's degree, and 2.1% had a doctorate degree as the highest degree attained.

Organizational Characteristics of the Schools Involved in the Questionnaire

The organizational characteristics of the school were identified by describing the following elements: (a) age of the school, (b) type of school system, (c) type of community in which the school was located, and (d) number of

Table 4.4

Frequency, Percentage Frequency, and Cumulative Percentage Frequency Distributions of Highest Qualification of Principals (n = 94)

Highest degree	f	%f	Cum %f
BEd	19	20.2	20.4
Diploma	27	28.7	49.5
Masters	45	47.9	97.8
Doctorate	2	2.1	100.0

students who were enrolled in the school.

Age of the School

The frequency and percentage frequency distributions of the number of years the school has been in operation are reported in Table 4.5. The majority of the schools involved in the study had been in operation for 25 years or more; one school had been in operation for 7-9 years and one school had been in operation for 13-15 years.

Table 4.5

Frequency, Percentage Frequency Distribution, and Cumulative Percentage Distribution of Age of the School (n = 94)

Number of years of operation	f	%f	Cum %f
2-3	4	4.3	4.3
7-9	1	1.1	5.3
10-12	6	6.4	11.7
13-15	1	1.1	12.8
16-18	6	6.4	19.1
19-21	7	7.4	26.6
22-24	12	12.8	39.4
25 or more	57	60.6	100.0

Type of School System

The frequency and percentage frequency distributions of the types of school systems for schools involved in the study are provided in Table 4.6. Of the schools involved in the study, 70.2% were from public systems, whereas 10.6% were from each of the Catholic separate systems and county systems; 8.6% of the respondents were from other types of school systems.

Table 4.6

Frequency and Percentage Frequency Distribution
of Types of School Systems
(n = 94)

Type of school system	f	%f
Public	66	70.2
Catholic separate	10	10.6
Protestant separate	1	1.1
County	10	10.6
Division	6	6.4
Other	1	1.1
Total	94	100.0

Type of Community

Table 4.7 provides a summary of the types of communities in which schools involved in this study were located. Most schools involved in this study (i.e., 67.0%) were located in large urban communities, whereas 19.1% were located in small urban communities and 13.8% were located in rural communities.

Number of Students

The number of students enrolled in schools for this study is reported in Table 4.8. 26.6% of the schools involved in this study had from 400-499 students enrolled for the current term. A total of 10.6% of the schools had 199 students or fewer enrolled for the current term and 17.0% had 600-699 students enrolled.

Table 4.7

Frequency, Percentage Frequency, and Cumulative Frequency of Types of Communities (n=94)

Type of community	f	%f
Large urban	63	67.0
Small urban	18	19.1
Rural	13	13.8

Table 4.8

Frequency, Percentage Frequency, and Cumulative Percentage Frequency of Number of Students Enrolled in Schools (n=94)

Number of students enrolled in school	f	%f	Cum %
199 or fewer	10	10.6	10.6
200-299	11	11.7	22.3
300-399	15	16.0	38.3
400-499	25	26.6	64.9
500-599	17	18.1	83.0
600-699	16	17.0	100.0

Profile of Principals Participating in Interviews

This section provides a description of the principals and the organizational characteristics of the schools involved in the interview component of this study.

Tables 4.9 and 4.10 provide a summary of the frequencies for each of the characteristics of the principals and characteristics of the organizations of each school.

The second data-collection procedure involved 10 principals of junior high schools in a semi-structured interview setting; one female and nine males participated. The age of the interviewees varied from the 36-40 year category to the 51-55 year category. One individual had spent 13-15 years as principal, while three had served 10-12 years. Most principals had spent seven to nine years at their current schools. None of the interviewees had a doctoral degree, seven had completed a master's degree, one had a post-bachelor's diploma, and two had a bachelor's degree.

With regard to the organizational elements, four public schools, two Catholic separate schools, one Protestant separate school, and three county schools were selected for the interviews in consultation with central office personnel for each district. Of these schools, six were in large urban settings from the two largest centres (Edmonton and Calgary), two were in small urban settings, and two were in rural settings; this distribution was chosen to match that of the questionnaire in terms of urban-rural balance. The largest schools involved in the interview component of this study had 600-699 students, while the smallest school had 200-299 students; the most common school size category was 400-499 students.

Table 4.9

Frequencies of Personal and Professional Characteristics of Principals in the Interview Sample (n = 10)

Characteristic	f
Sex	
Female	1
Male	9
Number of years as principal	
7-9	6
10-12	3
13-15	1
Number of years as principal of this school	
1	1
7-9	5
10-12	3
13-15	1
Highest qualification	
BEd	2
Diploma	1
Masters	7

Table 4.10

Frequencies of Organizational Characteristics of Schools in the Interview Sample (n=10)

Characteristic	f
Type of system	
Public	4
Catholic separate	2
Protestant separate	1
County	3
Type of community	
Large urban	6
Small urban	2
Rural	2
Number of students enrolled	
200-299	1
400-499	5
500-599	2
600-699	2

Summary

The majority of the questionnaire respondents were male: 85 males and 9 females. A total of 67% of all questionnaire respondents were between the ages

of 46 and 55. With regard to the number of years of experience, the most common categories were 4-6 years and 10-12 years; 67% had 12 years of experience or less in their leadership role. A large number of respondents (31.9%) had spent 2-3 years at their current schools while 76.6% had spent six years or less in their current locations. Many principals had attained a master's degree; 45 individuals or 47.9% of the respondents had attained a master's degree as their highest qualification.

In relation to the organizational characteristics of schools involved in the questionnaire, the majority (60.6%) had been in operation for 25 years or more. A total of 66 schools (70.2%) were from public systems, while 10 were from Catholic separate systems and 10 were from county systems. Similarly, over half of the schools (63 in total) were from large urban settings and most had a mean population size of 400-499 students.

The principals involved in the interview were selected to closely represent similar proportions to the sample who responded to the questionnaire. Nine males and one female between the ages of 36 and 55 were interviewed. All of them had served as a principal for seven to nine years or more; they had been in their current schools as principal from one year to nine years. Seventy per cent of the interviewees had a master's degree. The majority of schools involved in the interviews were large urban public systems and half of the schools had between 400 and 499 students.

Chapter 5

Constraints on Leadership Effectiveness

The purpose of this chapter is to present the results of the analyses of questionnaire and interview data in relation to the following research questions:

1. What are the perceptions of junior high principals about internal and external constraints on leadership effectiveness?

2. To what extent are the constraints perceived to affect leadership effectiveness?

3. What constraints do principals consider to be the major barriers to leadership effectiveness?

4. What are the principals' perceptions about the relationship that exists between leadership effectiveness of the principal and the overall effectiveness of the school?

5. To what extent are the constraints on the leadership effectiveness of the principal related to the constraints on school effectiveness according to the respondent group?

The first section provides information from previous studies regarding potential constraints on leadership effectiveness. Information is supplied about the variables considered by principals in this study to be least and most important as constraints on leadership effectiveness. Written comments added to the questionnaire and those made during the in-depth interviews are reported in relation to the summary of specific quantitative findings from the questionnaire.

Variables Perceived as the Most Important Constraints on Leadership Effectiveness

Several variables were perceived by respondents to be important constraints on leadership effectiveness. The variable that was considered to be the most important constraint by respondents was inadequate funding; 20.4% rated it as a "very important" constraint and 49.5% rated it as a "highly important" constraint; therefore, it had the highest mean of 3.01. Further, the amount of time taken in dealing with problem students was considered to be the most important constraint by 37.2% and as "very important" by 26.6% of the respondents. The next four variables were considered to be "highly important" constraints by respondents: (a) inadequate physical facilities (mean 2.25), (b) lack of time for supervising staff (mean 2.18), (c) lack of staff mobility (mean 2.13), and (d) the amount of time required for administration (mean 2.12).

These variables which were identified, through analysis of data, as major constraints were supported through comments provided on the questionnaire and in the interviews. With regard to inadequate funding (mean 3.01), a few respondents commented that additional funding would provide more time for principals to be instructional leaders. For example, one individual in a rural setting suggested that "with more funds, we could have more administrative time to assume various required roles." Similarly, the principal of a large urban public school with over 600 students indicated that "the problem is one of dealing with morale as the government increasingly leaves funding to local taxpayers by means of city taxes." A principal with 13-15 years of experience from a large urban

setting agreed that "the need to be involved in fundraising to 'drive' programs [and] philosophies" was created by insufficient funding.

In relation to the variable viewed by respondents as the second most important constraint, (i.e., time taken dealing with problem students), several individuals commented that the requirements placed on themselves and their schools by integration of special needs students was a major concern. One individual from a small urban county school of 500-599 students indicated that "more accent on protecting the rights of students and less accent on responsibilities [with] less power to remove disruptive students from the system" was problematic to both school and leadership effectiveness. Another principal from a rural school with 200-300 students remarked that dealing with problem students is "a part of the job but it almost eliminated the opportunity to work with program design, change, or evaluation." Similarly, the principal of a large urban Catholic separate school with fewer than 200 students suggested that "the greatest constraint to all of education is the behavioral student. . . . It is time-consuming and often creates a huge distraction to the education of others. The integration of special needs [students] has placed a stress on all classes . . . [resulting in] too much mixing of politics rather than good sound educational policies." These comments reflect on the amount of time required for administrative tasks (mean 2.12) and the lack of time to supervise staff (mean 2.18) as well.

In relation to inadequate physical facilities (mean 2.25), a principal in a small rural school of less than 200 students maintained that "budget cut-backs allow little room for innovation so [purchasing] technological equipment and

minimal hiring of newly trained staff" create constraints on school and leadership effectiveness.

No specific comments were made to illustrate the importance of lack of staff mobility (mean 2.13), although many comments are reported in Chapter 6 with regard to the constraints on overall school effectiveness created by specific concerns regarding teacher performance.

Other Variables Perceived as Constraints on Leadership Effectiveness

The six variables with the highest means and with the lowest means have been described; means for all other variables ranged from 1.98 for the variable described as insufficient space to 1.12 for flexibility of system policies. Comments by questionnaire respondents and interviewees provided additional support for these variables. With regard to the variation in teaching ability of the staff, several respondents indicated that the inability to terminate ineffective teachers created extra work for themselves as administrators and thus reduced the effectiveness of their schools and their leadership performance. For example, one male respondent in a large urban setting at a school with over 500 students commented that

> the role of administrators is to see that the best people are dealing with our kids and that the administrator must be available to (a) recognize and reward good teachers, (b) facilitate the professional growth of good teachers, and (c) facilitate program development. At this point, we in our schools are prevented, as administrators, in doing the above because of (a) students experiencing difficulties in social and emotional growth and (b) dealing with less effective staff, i.e., 90% of our time is spent with 10% of our staff and students.

Similarly, a principal in a large, urban public school with approximately 400 students listed the general professional attitude of teachers as a major constraint,

pointing out that "there still exists a very significant number of teachers who are too comfortable in their 'permanent/certificated/continuous contract' roles to feel any need to address the challenges of today's educational scene. . . . Maybe permanent certification without any evidence of upgrading is an archaic model." Another respondent agreed that the inability to terminate ineffective teachers was an additional constraint to leadership effectiveness.

In relation to the constraint created by policies in the school system (mean 1.41), several respondents observed that system constraints prevented optimum effectiveness as a leader. To illustrate, two respondents with four to six years of experience as principals in rural school settings proposed that the lack of long range planning by the system was a constraint to their leadership effectiveness due to the large number of meetings they were required to attend. Further, a principal with 4-6 years of experience in a large urban public school of more than 600 students described additional constraining variables to leadership effectiveness as the system requirement to make changes without sufficient lead time and the excessive number of meetings scheduled for principals. Similarly, an administrator with 10-12 years of experience in a small urban county school of 600-699 students suggested that "trustees trying to be administrators created a constraint" since they attempted to introduce "pet campaigns" which may not have been educationally essential.

Pressures from the community (mean 1.27) were substantiated as a constraint by several individuals who commented on the changing nature of adolescents which has created major alterations in society and has had a negative

impact on both leadership and school effectiveness. One respondent with 10-12 years of experience in a small urban setting indicated that the "social and emotional problems of students are hindering the ability of the school to maintain academic learning." This individual also suggested that the weakening of the family as an institution in society is a major constraint: "family mobility, one-parent families, emotionally and socially strained children, along with the lack of motivation to read or to be a learner are causing the schools to grind to a halt." Other individuals also highlighted the lack of support for schools in today's society. A principal in a large urban public setting with over 600 students suggested that "high expectations, relatively low pay and esteem, and increasing work loads are literally killing staff. In addition, there has been a significant increase in the frequency and severity of behavioral problems among students." This individual commented that our role as administrators was to help teachers perform their essential duties, rather than become distracted by additional expectations of society.

In relation to the lack of flexibility in applying system policies (mean 1.12), one principal in a large urban public school of slightly less than 400 students maintained that a need exists "to make each school more independent of bureaucratic constraints, to have fewer management people, and to have more educationally productive people working directly with students."

The individual comments generally provided strong support for the variables identified as major constraints on principal effectiveness and illustrated how each variable served as a constraint in individual school settings.

Variables Perceived as Minor Constraints on Leadership Effectiveness

Table 5.1 presents a summary of variables listed from high to low by mean which represents the average calculated by dividing the values of all responses by the total number of respondents. The valid percentages reported in each category are also provided. A five point scale was used ranging from "not at all important" ("0") to "highly important" (4). Six variables were not considered by questionnaire respondents to be important constraints on their effectiveness. Commencing with the factors which had the lowest means, 65.6% of the principals considered too few students and 61.3% considered lack of support from the system supervisor as unimportant constraints. Furthermore, 59.6% of the respondents perceived their teaching load not to be an important constraint. The ineffective communication from central office staff to the school was not considered as an important constraint by 33.7% of the principals. The lack of flexibility in applying system policies was perceived not to be an important constraint by 29% of the respondents. No specific comments were made by respondents in relation to all variables with the lowest means.

Analysis of Interview Data Related to Leadership Effectiveness

Interview data provided individual comments to illustrate key points related to constraints on leadership effectiveness. Illustrations offered information about strategies used by respondents to resolve these constraints. A semi-structured interview was used to ensure that a uniform set of questions was utilized for all interviewees.

Table 5.1

Percentage Frequency Distribution and Means of Importance of Variables as Constraints on Leadership Effectiveness

Factor	Importance -- %f					Mean
	Not at all 0	Somewhat 1	Moderately 2	Very 3	Highly 4	
1. Inadequate funding	5.4	7.5	17.2	20.4	49.5	3.01
2. Time taken in dealing with problem students	5.3	11.7	19.1	26.6	37.2	2.79
3. Inadequate physical facilities	14.0	18.3	22.6	19.4	25.8	2.25
4. Lack of time for supervising staff	9.9	28.6	14.3	28.6	18.7	2.18
5. Lack of staff mobility	12.8	20.2	27.7	20.2	19.1	2.13
6. Amount of time required for administration (management tasks, details)	13.8	19.1	24.5	26.6	16.0	2.12
7. Insufficient space	21.3	17.0	23.4	19.1	19.1	1.98
8. Lack of time for your professional growth	12.8	27.7	24.5	24.5	10.6	1.93
9. Lack of time for planning	12.8	31.9	22.3	22.3	10.6	1.86
10. Lack of time for administering student activities	15.1	24.7	32.3	21.5	6.5	1.80
11. Resistance to change by staff	12.8	33.0	24.5	22.3	7.4	1.79
12. Variations in teaching ability of certificated staff	21.5	23.7	24.7	25.8	4.3	1.68
13. Provincial requirements/regulations	15.1	32.3	34.4	14.0	4.3	1.60
14. Lack of parental support	26.9	32.3	18.3	11.8	10.8	1.47
15. Policies of your school system	17.2	39.8	30.1	10.8	2.2	1.41
16. Lack of opportunity to select staff	29.8	35.1	16.0	12.8	6.4	1.31
17. Pressures from the community	23.4	38.3	29.8	5.3	3.2	1.27
18. Variations in ability of support staff	33.0	30.9	22.3	11.7	2.1	1.19
19. Lack of flexibility in applying school system policies	29.0	40.9	20.4	8.6	1.1	1.12
20. Ineffective communication from central office staff to your school	33.7	39.1	16.3	10.9	0.0	1.04
21. Too many students	58.7	21.7	9.8	6.5	3.3	0.74
22. Your teaching load	59.6	19.1	10.6	9.6	1.1	0.73
23. Too few students	65.6	14.0	8.6	7.5	4.3	0.71
24. Lack of support from system supervisor	61.3	21.5	15.1	2.2	0.0	0.60

Criteria for Judging Effectiveness as a School Leader

Several respondents commented that they perceived a great overlap between their effectiveness as a leader and the effectiveness of their schools; comments were added related to ways in which the leadership of the principal affected teacher actions with regard to school goals, parent attitudes and behaviors in support of goals, and interaction with students which supported increased achievement and a sense of well-being for students. To illustrate, one principal of a large urban public school related that "I judged my success in terms of the success of the school." Five principals noted a major sign of their effectiveness was their ability to "get the best out of people" in promoting the goals and philosophy of the school. The principal of a large urban school stated that "the main purpose focusses on causing others to do what I want them to do, not from a directive way . . . I am the keeper of the vision . . . and actions of others should address that vision. . . ."

In addition, several principals highlighted the importance of decision-making skills, which one individual defined as "the ability and the guts to make decisions when you have to" and another principal described by saying "it's important to be able to look at problem-resolution successfully." The principal of a large, urban school suggested "I have to have expertise in all areas . . . conflict situations, resource problems, or program related problems." Furthermore, three respondents highlighted the importance of their organizational skills; to illustrate, the principal of a large urban public school used these questions in evaluating leadership and school effectiveness: "How are things operating? Do things seem

to run smoothly or is there great confusion? Is everyone working toward the same goal?"

Eight of the respondents listed as one criterion of effectiveness some aspect of interpersonal skills with parents, students, community members, and staff members. This criterion was described as "the spirit there is among people" or as a "team approach" which relies on "trust and honesty elements." Similarly, the principal of a large urban public school described this aspect as "the ability to collaborate and work with other people . . . and to delegate effectively."

Only one principal mentioned the importance of instructional supervision skills which were described as "the understanding of pedagogy or the understanding of good teaching and learning skills and practices." However, several comments were made in relation to "the degree to which staff put an effort into the goals," which could infer the importance of this aspect of the principal's role.

Constraints on Goal Attainment by the School Leader

Financial constraints were listed as extremely important by four of the respondents in relation to provision of resources, technological upgrading, adequate support staff, and ample opportunities for professional growth. No specific comment was made regarding whether provincial or local support was the problem.

A constraint noted by five respondents dealt with the managerial tasks or "paperwork resulting from the visions and initiatives of district office." The principal of a small urban school focussed on the multitude of changes created by

the provincial government while another individual from a small urban setting commented about being constrained by the fact that "the system generates a lot of work for people to do; we serve on a lot of committees . . . [and] that takes time away from what we're doing; these outside influences are the greatest constraints." One respondent in a large, urban setting suggested that "a barrier [to the leadership function] has been an overemphasis on the importance of the managerial function; despite the fact that the instructional leadership function in terms of school board policies and the school act is the one we're accountable for, unfortunately the managerial role tends to take up the time." Two individuals indicated that the excessive number of managerial duties required that principals become effective time managers who are able to prioritize and allow time for relevant tasks such as monitoring, teaching, and dealing with crisis situations.

The characteristics of students created by changing lifestyles, families, and societal elements such as the Young Offenders Act also presented a major constraint for three of the respondents. One principal in a large urban setting commented that "school systems are getting more and more dysfunctional students . . . [so] we need specialists who are able to help them with counselling and to help parents"; provision of support and programming for at-risk students is very time-consuming for principals, according to this interviewee. Similarly, another individual noted that "district requirements to make individual programs for each integrated student was a major constraint" in that extensive resources are essential for each school.

Strategies for Resolving Constraints on Leadership Effectiveness

The most common solution proposed by interviewees involved promotion of a team-oriented approach which was summarized by the principal of a rural, county school as the ability to "designate, delegate, and work as a team." Although three individuals indicated that they worked many more hours to resolve constraints, they also indicated that they tried to "work smarter not harder" by "training the administrative team . . . [so they] can multiply efforts through networking and can accomplish much more." A similar comment was made by the principal of a large, urban school who expressed the rationale for this approach: "I believe the teachers are the most important part of the program for the kids. I've got to empower them to do their job through teamwork."

Several principals indicated that they also simplified their role "reducing the number of optional managerial functions such as committee work" or by "replying minimally to tasks where you could do a lot more." As one principal from a small urban county system indicated, "with experience you sift through the important materials to reduce extra tasks from central office. . . ."

Three principals recommended that professional development was a key solution. To paraphrase one principal in a large urban school, you have to be an effective time manager and to learn the skills, attitudes, and background knowledge that enable you to do your job effectively; as well you must keep abreast of all kinds of things in the literature through workshops and training seminars.

Relationship Between Results of Research and Literature Review

A number of interesting comparisons can be made between the results of this research study and information related to this topic gained from a review of the literature. The respondents in this study found inadequate funding to be the greatest constraint on leadership effectiveness; this was also identified by Pellicer, Anderson, Keefe, Kelley, and McCleary (1988) who studied high school leaders; the inability to acquire funds was one of the most frequently listed internal constraints. Benveniste (1989) listed lack of adequate resources and insufficient physical resources which induced isolation as constraints on leadership. "Time taken dealing with problem students" had the second highest mean in this study; Valentine, Clark, Nickerson, and Keefe (1981) also indicated that time taken by irresponsible parents and problem students was the second most important constraint in their study (with "time taken by administrative detail" being the most frequently reported constraint). The third most important constraint in this study was "inadequate physical facilities" which was not identified as a constraint by previous studies. "Lack of time to supervise staff" was the fourth most important constraint for respondents in this survey; similarly, Mulhauser (1982), Murphy (1987), and Benveniste (1989) identified time for supervision of staff as a constraint. "Lack of staff mobility" was considered to be an important constraint in this study but was not indicated as a variable in previous research. Substantial support was identified in the literature and in this study for the amount of time required for administration (including management tasks and details). Sweeney (1986), Martin and Willower (1981), and Mulhauser (1982) reinforced

the constraining effect of excessive administrative demands. Likewise, Valentine, Clark, Nickerson, and Keefe (1981) concluded that time taken by administrative detail was the most frequently reported constraint. Pellicer, Anderson, Keefe, Kelley, and McCleary (1988) also listed the amount of time spent on administration duties as being one of the most frequently listed internal constraints. As well, Bennis's (1990) self-analysis identified routine work as a major constraint.

In terms of variables which were not identified as major constraints, there was a fair degree of agreement. The variable with the lowest mean was "lack of support from system supervisors" in this study. Benveniste (1989) was the only author to identify political constraints as a variable which caused principals to reject important variables in favor of measurable activities such as staff evaluation. "Too few students" and "too many students" were variables which were not reported to be constraints in this study; likewise, the size of the school was not considered to be an important variable in the results presented by Valentine, Clark, Nickerson, and Keefe (1981).

In this study and in previous research, the teaching load was not listed as a constraint. Similarly, ineffective communication from central office was not considered as an important constraint in this study or the literature. "Lack of flexibility in applying system policies" was a variable which had a mean of 1.12 in this study. However, Lavery (1973) identified provincial and district expectations as being a constraint in promoting excellence through creative application of curriculum requirements, operational guidelines, and policy mandates.

Murphy (1987) and Benveniste (1989) also suggested that district expectations were a constraint due to the multiplicity of roles they created.

In conclusion, there was support in the literature for variables identified as constraints on leadership effectiveness by respondents in this study.

Summary

Information was reported using means with regard to the six variables (or 25% of the variables) which were perceived to be the least constraining, the six variables (or 25%) which were perceived to be the most constraining, and those variables which were in the mid-range. Comments from written interviews and semi-structured interviews were used to provide illustrations of constraints and to further explain various variables. The two variables which were considered to be very important by respondents were inadequate funding (mean 3.01) and time taken dealing with problem students (mean 2.79). Several variables were viewed as moderately important (i.e., means ranged from 1.79 to 2.25). Most of these variables were related to the amount of time available for specific administrative tasks, while two of them focussed on physical facilities and one dealt with resistance to change. Several variables (means ranging from 1.04 to 1.68) were considered somewhat important as constraints on leadership effectiveness. These variables were related to provincial or system policies, parent and community support, variations in staff ability, and communication from central office. Four variables were not considered as important constraints (means 0.60 to 0.74); these were related to size of student population, teaching load, and support from the system supervisor.

The following six variables were identified through the questionnaires as those with the smallest means and thus were considered to be the least constraining variables for leadership effectiveness: (a) lack of flexibility in applying system policies (mean 1.12), (b) ineffective communication from central office staff to your school (mean 1.04), (c) too many students (mean 0.74), (d) your teaching load (mean 0.73), (e) too few students (mean 0.71), and (f) lack of support from system supervisor (mean 0.60).

The following variables were identified through the questionnaire as the six variables (or 25% of all variables) with the largest means; they were perceived by respondents to be the greatest constraining variables to leadership effectiveness: (a) inadequate funding (mean 3.01), (b) time taken in dealing with problem students (mean 2.79), (c) inadequate physical facilities (mean 2.25), (d) lack of time for supervising staff (mean 2.18), (e) lack of staff mobility (mean 2.13), and (f) amount of time required for administration dealing with management tasks and details (mean 2.12). Comments from questionnaire respondents and interviewees substantiated the importance of these variables in relation to their perceived constraining impact on leadership effectiveness.

Many principals added comments on the questionnaire which referred to the constraining effect of inadequate funds and the need to be involved in fundraising or fee assessment. Several respondents commented about the current societal expectations, family problems, and the nature of adolescent students which demanded an increasingly large amount of administrative time. As well, comments were made about the constraints created by system and provincial

requirements through excessive bureaucracy, ineffective long-range planning, and program specifications. Several comments were also added with regard to staff performance and the inability to terminate ineffective individuals. Furthermore, interviewees agreed that financial constraints were an issue; four individuals indicated that inadequate funds were made available for sufficient resources, technology upgrading, and professional growth. They also highlighted the current characteristics of students created by changing lifestyles of families and societal elements (such as the Young Offenders Act) as being major constraints on their effectiveness as leaders. In addition, five interviewees commented on the multitude of bureaucratic demands and managerial duties which reduced their effectiveness due to the increasing amount of time taken from their day. Although ineffective staff performance was not identified as a constraint by interviewees, the "existence of extremely strong teachers, people who are committed to kids and who know the curriculum" was identified as an essential element of an effective school.

In conclusion, inadequate funding was perceived to be the most important constraint on leadership effectiveness. Several constraints related to the amount of time spent on dealing with problem students and excessive administration duties were also reiterated by respondents and interviewees with regard to leadership effectiveness because time for staff supervision, professional development, and long-term planning was insufficient. Several personal characteristics appeared to create substantial differences in response to the questionnaire items, including the number of years of experience as a principal,

the number of years the school had been in operation, the number of years of experience as a principal in the school, the number of students enrolled in the school, and the highest degree attained by the principal. Interviewees reinforced these conclusions and provided illustrations from individual settings. Furthermore, they echoed the conviction that school effectiveness is directly related to the effectiveness of the principal.

Chapter 6

Constraints on School Effectiveness

The purpose of this chapter is to present the results of the analyses of questionnaire and interview data in relation to the following research questions:

1. What are the perceptions of junior high principals about the major discrepancies that exist between "ideal" and "actual" school effectiveness criteria?

2. What are the perceptions of junior high principals about internal and external constraints upon their "actual" school effectiveness?

3. To what extent do each of the constraints affect the effectiveness of the school?

4. What constraints do principals consider to be the major barriers to school effectiveness?

The first section provides information from the literature with regard to potential constraints on school effectiveness. The next section presents details based on means regarding the factors considered by principals to be least important as constraints on school effectiveness; a summary of the constraints considered by respondents to be most important is then reported. Written comments added to the questionnaires and those made during the indepth interviews are reported in relation to specific findings.

Variables Not Perceived as Constraints on School Effectiveness

As shown in Table 6.1, the variable which was rated as the lowest in importance as a constraint on school effectiveness was "too much staff turnover;" 71% of the respondents rated it as "not at all important." The following three

Table 6.1

Percentage Frequency Distribution and Means of Importance of Variables as Constraints on School Effectiveness

Factor	Importance -- %f					Mean
	Not at all 0	Somewhat 1	Moderately 2	Very 3	Highly 4	
1. Financial support provided by province	1.1	8.6	11.8	20.4	58.1	3.26
2. Financial support provided by system	6.5	20.4	18.3	29.0	25.8	2.47
3. Ineffective educational leadership within the province	5.4	21.5	21.5	25.8	25.8	2.45
4. Degree of bureaucratization	7.4	30.9	35.1	19.1	7.4	1.88
5. Role of educational organizations in society	22.6	15.1	33.3	19.4	9.7	1.79
6. Government legislation/regulations	12.8	30.9	30.9	21.3	4.3	1.73
7. Lack of financial support for staff professional development	21.3	23.4	30.9	16.0	8.5	1.67
8. Routineness of procedures (timetabling, testing requirements, legislation)	18.1	26.6	34.0	17.0	4.3	1.63
9. Lack of staff turnover in your school	28.7	22.3	23.4	12.8	12.8	1.59
10. Composition of your staff (skill, knowledge, experience)	19.4	36.6	25.8	12.9	5.4	1.48
11. Stage in the life cycle of your school (start-up, established, declining)	35.5	20.4	19.4	18.3	6.5	1.40
12. Tendency of school system to maintain status quo	33.0	27.7	22.3	9.6	7.4	1.31
13. Your degree of control over budgetary matters	33.0	24.5	24.5	14.9	3.2	1.31
14. Ineffective leadership within your school system	35.5	32.3	15.1	10.8	6.5	1.20
15. Complexity of your school system	30.0	35.1	22.3	10.6	1.1	1.16
16. Overall policies of your school system	31.9	34.0	22.3	10.6	1.1	1.15
17. Existence of grade-level tests for curricular areas	37.6	32.3	21.5	6.5	2.2	1.03
18. Size of your school system (district, division, county)	54.3	16.0	13.8	13.8	2.1	0.94
19. Overall goals of your school system	44.7	26.6	22.3	5.3	1.1	0.92
20. Over-emphasis on technology in school	55.9	21.5	15.1	6.5	1.1	0.75
21. Time per day spent on core subjects	55.9	25.8	14.0	3.2	1.1	0.68
22. Too much staff turnover in your school	71.0	20.4	6.5	2.2	0.0	0.40

variables were considered not important by over half of the respondents: (a) "amount of time per day spent on core subjects," considered not to be important by 55.9% of the respondents and somewhat important as a constraint by 25.8%; (b) "over-emphasis on technology" in schools, considered not to be important as a constraint by 55.9% as well and somewhat important by 21.5%; and (c) "size of the school system," considered not to be important as a constraint by 54.3% and somewhat important by 16.0%. With regard to the "overemphasis on technology," one principal at a large urban public school with 500-599 students suggested that rather than an overemphasis on technology in schools, the "underemphasis and underfunding of technology is a serious problem . . . [in] this province." A few principals commented that timetabling requirements for complementary subjects created a constraint due to the fact that they did not meet individual student needs; for example, one individual in a small school in a rural setting noted that "French as a second language has a core status but option time . . . [thus creating] a scheduling problem."

The other two variables in the bottom 25% of the factors, according to mean, are "overall goals of the school system" (which was considered not to be important by 44.7% of the respondents and somewhat important by 26.6%) and the "existence of grade-level tests for curricular areas" (which was considered not to important by 27.6% of the principals and somewhat important by 32.3% of the principals). With regard to this last variable, a few respondents commented on the provincial examination requirements which they considered to be a constraint. One individual observed that

> it would appear that all that matters is that all students score highly on . . . grade examinations. There is far more to education than attaining high marks on these exams. Students learn how to get along with others, to set goals, to help make society a better place to be, just to mention a few. These qualities are not assessed by [provincial] . . . test requirements.

Variables Perceived as Major Constraints on School Effectiveness

According to questionnaire respondents in this study, the factor considered to be the most important constraint on school effectiveness was the "financial support provided by the province;" 58.1% rated it as a highly important constraint, while 20.4% rated it as a very important constraint. Similarly, the "financial support provided by the system" was perceived to be the second major constraint; 25.8% of the principals considered it as a highly important constraint and 29.0% considered it as a very important constraint. The importance of this variable was reinforced by individual comments. Several respondents observed that their schools were required to become involved in fundraising in order to provide adequate programs, especially in the area of technology. To illustrate, the principal of a school with 400-499 students in a large urban center commented that "the largest restraint is the lack of funds to provide programs beyond the basic level. We assess fees and do fundraising which augments the meagre allocations from the province."

The third most important constraint, as perceived by principals who responded to this questionnaire, was the "ineffective educational leadership" within the province; this factor was perceived to be highly important by 25.8% and very important by 25.8% of the respondents. One individual with 13-15 years of experience as a principal in a large urban public school of 500-599 students stated

that "the reason I do not view provincial policies, guidelines, and regulations as constraints is that I ignore them if they don't meet the needs of kids." Another principal with 4-6 years of experience, working in a large urban Catholic separate school of 300-399 students, inferred that "the greatest factor and major constraints are the policies of Alberta Education because there is too much infiltration of these impractical ideas into good sound educational policies."

The variable which was considered fourth highest as a constraint was the "degree of bureaucratization" which had a mean of 1.88. The principal of a large urban Catholic separate school commented that leaders at the system level "have become entangled in a bog of bureaucracy that stifles any change unless it is top down directed." A principal with 22-24 years of experience at a public school with 300-399 students reported that it was necessary "to make each school more independent of bureaucratic constraints [by having] fewer management people and more educationally productive people working directly with students."

The "role of educational organizations in society" was viewed as the fifth most important constraint with a mean of 1.79. Several individuals commented about the multiple expectations of the public with regard to schools. To illustrate, the principal in a large urban setting with a student population of 600-699 students observed that teachers are expected to be nurse, parent, and social worker. Another principal in a rural setting with seven to nine years of experience referred to these issues as the "non-academic expectations of schools." Similarly, the principal at a Catholic separate school in a large urban setting alleged that a major constraint was created by "society's increased expectations of

the school as the final holdout in a world increasingly coming apart at the seams and relying on us [schools] to 'fix things up.'"

"Government legislation and regulations" (mean 1.73) was perceived by respondents to be the sixth most important constraint. A principal with 16-18 years of experience in a rural school with 400-499 students suggested that "provincial regulations regarding issues such as electives are too narrow and restrictive when trying to meet the needs of various communities." Similarly, a principal in a large urban setting at a public school of 400-499 students proposed that "if a school is in an area where many students are interested in technical areas of study, they should have the opportunity to study them. It would seem that we are supposed to get everyone prepared for a college education which is not being realistic."

The balance of the variables ranged from a mean of 1.67 (for the "lack of financial support for staff professional development") to a mean of 1.15 (for "overall policies of your school system"). Several comments supported specific variables within this range. For example, one principal in a small urban setting with 400-499 students described the tendency of the system to maintain the status quo by suggesting that "there needs to be a 'restructuring' of public schools. The system we have inherited was developed in the 1800's for the Industrial Revolution. It is not meeting the needs of our present youth. . . . We need more interdisciplinary and continuous progress programs." In relation to the "lack of financial support for professional development" (mean 1.67), a principal from a large urban public setting and one from a small urban public setting agreed that

sufficient funds and time for staff professional development were not available, especially in comparison with the professional development allocation available for board members. With regard to "ineffective leadership within the school system" (mean 1.20), two respondents with over ten years of experience, one from a small urban setting and one from a rural setting, reported that trustees are a constraint to effectiveness when they become overly involved in educational decisions or when they have "pet campaigns."

Analysis of Interview Data Related to School Effectiveness

Interview data provided a great number of detailed descriptions of how principals identified, investigated, and resolved constraints on the effectiveness of their schools. A semi-structured format was used to ensure that a uniform set of questions was asked but provision was also made for personal comments, anecdotes, and opinions. The following summary provides general information gleaned from interview sessions.

Establishment of School Priorities

With regard to specific goals or priorities, there was general agreement on the importance of a focus on improvement in several areas of student achievement, student leadership, student behavior, communication with all stakeholder groups, and program delivery to meet individual student needs. To illustrate, a school of over 500 students in a large urban public system had developed a five-year thinking skills model which was designed to improve student achievement through the enhancement of critical thinking skills and the integration of skills into all curricular areas. Goal attainment occurred when

results on system and provincial exams indicated that student scores improved after the implementation of the thinking skills model. To achieve this goal, the principal faced constraints related to staff preparation, provision of appropriate training, selection of the curricular resources for each grade level, design of evaluation formats, development of strategies for integration of skills into the existing curriculum, and design of vehicles for communication of information to parents.

Student leadership was the focus for several individuals; one principal in a small urban county school system had established a goal of providing increased opportunities for student leadership as a means of promoting student involvement in the operation of the school. In relation to promotion of positive behavior, the principal of a small urban school with 400-499 students initiated a program which deals with attendance, punctuality, politeness, learning, and encouragement. The focus was development of personal skills essential for success through positive reinforcement. Staff acceptance became the major constraint because certain individuals expressed philosophical differences with the orientation of the program; however, careful revision by a staff committee with ample opportunity for input and training ensured success. Other schools also addressed behavioral concerns related to attendance, protection of at-risk students, and maintenance of high standards of student behavior.

Communication was an area for improvement with several principals interviewed; to illustrate, the principal of a large urban public school with 400-499 students worked with staff to develop a communication plan which promoted

closer interaction and increased involvement from all three "partners in effective education: the child, the parents, and teacher." Key aspects of the curriculum were identified along with strengths of the school program of studies. A stakeholder committee was established to determine the most efficient means of informing each group about these key aspects.

With regard to program delivery, several individuals reported that they had identified the need to improve programming for integrated special needs students; one school principal in a large urban public school with over 600 students had established a system where students are organized into pods so "each pod becomes a community of learners across three grades." The purposes of this plan were to provide a smaller structure for teachers to work within and also "to achieve an identity within that structure." Constraints on this approach ranged from staff acceptance and design of communication strategies to selection of students for each pod. As for many school enhancement projects, the initiation of this new structure was a process which evolved over a period of several years.

Although three principals indicated that improvement of professional development programs for staff was a priority, it became apparent that the actual priority was improved use of instructional strategies, student assessment techniques, and behavior management skills. Similarly, development of computer technology was listed as a priority by three schools but here again this actually was a strategy to promote student achievement and preparation for high school programming.

Criteria for Judging Effectiveness of Schools

School climate, which is a concept that included a wide-ranging list of characteristics, was considered by seven of the ten interviewees to be the most important criterion by which to judge the effectiveness of the school. The majority of the principals interviewed indicated that they believed their school should "make them [students] feel comfortable and worthwhile because it is a warm, caring place to be and a safe haven so that students, staff members, parents, and community members enjoy being in the school and feel like members of a team." The general reasons given for selection of this characteristic were related to societal concerns, the relationship between achievement and climate, and changes in the family structure. To illustrate, the principal of a rural county school with approximately 500 students indicated that "we need to go beyond basic education so we can deal with the other needs students have; there are lots of dysfunctional families and we need to accept this fact and work with it." The principal of a small, inner-city public school described climate as the "feeling you get when you enter the building, whether things are happening and people are happy about being there."

Another sign of an effective school according to several of the principals interviewed was the "existence of extremely strong teachers--people who are committed to kids, who know the curriculum, and who were strong in program," as described by the principal of a small urban county school. It was noted by the principal of a rural county school of 400-499 students that teachers need to work cooperatively in order to deliver the wide variety of programs required to develop

well-rounded students who pursue academics, social activities, athletics, and so on," which was considered by this respondent as the sign of an effective school. Several individuals commented on the importance of providing a balanced program to educate the whole child and to prepare students for higher education as well as good citizenship.

Three interviewees also listed student achievement results as a criterion by which to judge effectiveness but the comment was frequently made that although this is the key purpose of the school system, these results are just one measure of student success.

Strategies for Resolving Constraints on School Effectiveness

The majority of the respondents focussed on developing strong interpersonal skills and a team-oriented approach where tasks were delegated to staff and decisions were shared with all stakeholders. The principal from a large urban public school indicated that "I'm a great advocate of cognitive coaching . . . the most important thing is to be able to interact with anyone in a significant, productive way." Others commented that they needed to "be more efficient with the manpower you do have . . . it is a matter of synergy where you use 500 minds which is better than using one."

Four of the respondents indicated that an important strategy was to perform such public relations tasks as "setting up a business partnership with an oil company," "involving external agencies such as the parent community," "educating through newsletters and lobbying through newspaper articles to outline why we have specific policies or to advertise successful things we do at the

school," and "putting pressure on the district to make changes." Related to these strategies, were the suggestions made by three principals that additional finances could be acquired by running casinos, working with private industry, or coordinating with other governmental programs.

Another approach recommended by four of the principals interviewed was related to prioritizing specified aspects of the program which are considered to be more important by ignoring certain mandated requirements. One principal commented that it was necessary to "reduce the constraints that restrict the ability of teachers to achieve goals by running interference for things that impinge on their time and by creating processes . . . that are more efficient. . . ."

Illustrations From School Settings

Each respondent was eager to provide an illustration of a priority, plan, constraints, and results, all of which focussed on increased achievement or improved behavior by students. One such illustration was provided by the principal of a large urban school where a district special education program had been established. Constraints on the implementation of the program involved selecting appropriate staff, maintaining a flexible student population in each class, redesigning the timetable to allow for segregated and integrated classes, promoting parental involvement, training the program aide to perform specific tasks, and changing the attitude of the staff. This was accomplished through staff discussions, retraining, and making administrative decisions related to staff selection and scheduling. The results were measured in relation to student attitude, academic growth, self-esteem improvement, and teacher attitudes and

skills.

At a rural county school, the principal described a special project that was designed to deal with at-risk students. Funding was a major constraint but they were able to get central office support and incorporate funds for stay in school initiatives sponsored by the federal government. Another constraint which was resolved by incorporating a mentor program, was the attitude of the students. There were two main components: an afterschool tutoring program involving high school students funded through federal grants and a leadership training retreat which developed self-esteem and academic confidence. Parental support was an additional constraint but this was resolved by requiring all parents to attend an orientation meeting and by ongoing communication about attendance and achievement. The design of the program and provision of community integration presented a constraint which was solved by connecting to various local private industries and by involving a major large business corporation in simulation exercises for job application procedures. The issue of staff support was solved through involvement of staff members in the program design and through provision of extra assistance for these special students outside of the regular classroom. Positive results were attained in relation to better attendance, attitude, effort, and parental support.

The principal of a large urban school described a plan to improve student performance and achievement by developing computer literacy. The major constraint was funding so a partnership with an international computer company was established where school representatives could purchase lap top computers at

affordable rates. Another constraint dealt with staff training so in-service sessions were provided for the key staff members using district consultants and company representatives. Once the plan was secure, they expanded it to include other staff members in order to incorporate the use of computers into all curricular areas. The outcomes included increased student and staff proficiency using computers as well as enhanced achievement in specified aspects of the program.

It would appear that principals resolve constraints on school effectiveness in various manners but they work with stakeholders to accomplish their goals and meet their needs.

Relationship Between Results of Research and Literature Review

A number of variables were identified in this study that had been noted in the literature review. Respondents indicated that "financial support provided by the province and the system" were the most important constraints on school effectiveness. However, this was not identified as a factor by any of the previous researchers. "Ineffective leadership in the province" had the third highest mean as a variable in this study; this was one of four categories of constraints listed by Renihan and Renihan (1984) who conducted an extensive review of the literature. Harrison (1987) also listed provincial legislation as a constraint and he had another similar category described as the degree of bureaucratization which was related to the degree of autonomy and decentralization of authority. The "degree of bureaucratization" was considered by respondents in this study as the fourth most important constraint. Respondents also reported that the "role of educational organizations in society" was an important constraint on school

effectiveness. Likewise, Harrison (1987) listed the institutional setting as a major category of constraint and he agreed with respondents in this study who suggested that a major constraint was the overall purpose which is dictated by system priorities and guidelines, provincial legislation, and school policies. "Unclear mission and identity" was a similar variable noted by Goodlad (1990).

There is a degree of overlap in relation to the variables considered to be the least important constraints in this study with those identified in the literature. "Too much staff turnover" had the lowest mean; this factor was not identified in the literature, however, low prestige and low status for teachers were two variables identified by Goodlad (1990). The "amount of time spent per day on core subjects" was not considered by respondents to be an important constraint on school effectiveness; however, Harrison (1987) identified established patterns for timetabling as a constraint due to the routineness of these procedures. "Overemphasis on technology" had a mean of 0.75 in this study and was not mentioned as a constraint in previous studies. Although "overall goals of the school system" was not considered as constraints in this study, it was listed by Harrison (1987) as an important constraint along with the size of the school system and school, which received a mean of 0.94 in this study.

Several similarities were noted regarding constraints on school effectiveness in this study based on the results of a review of the literature.

Summary

This chapter provided a synopsis of the results of the questionnaire and interviews analysis regarding perceptions of junior high principals about

constraints on school effectiveness. Information was reported in three categories: (a) the six variables (25% of the variables) considered to be the least important constraints, (b) the six variables (25% of the variables) considered to be the most important constraints, and (c) the balance of the variables in the mid-range. Comments added to the questionnaires and those made during the semi-structured interviews provided illustrations of constraints and greater detail regarding the variables identified as constraints.

"Financial support provided by the province" (mean 3.26) was considered to be very important as a constraint by 58.1% of the questionnaire respondents. "Financial support provided by your system" (mean 2.47) and "effective leadership within the province" (mean 2.45) were viewed as "moderately important" by principals. A variety of variables were viewed as somewhat important; these can be divided into four categories: (a) societal aspects, which refer to the "role of education in society" and the "degree of bureaucratization in organizations;" (b) "provincial legislation," "grade-level tests," and "routineness of procedures;" (c) school aspects, include "staff turn-over," "composition of staff," and "life cycle of the school;" and (d) system aspects, which include policies, control over budget, professional development budget, leadership, complexity of the system, and tendency to maintain the status quo. Societal and provincial factors were generally viewed as more important constraints than were school and system constraints. The least important constraints had means which ranged from 0.40 to 0.94. These generally referred to system aspects (i.e., size and goals) and school aspects (i.e., over-emphasis on technology, time spent on core subjects, and staff

turnover).

Comments from the questionnaire respondents and interviewees substantiated and supported the identification of these factors as constraints on school effectiveness. Questionnaire respondents commented most frequently about issues such as the excessive societal expectations placed on schools. They also added comments about the lack of support provided for dysfunctional or high needs students and the lack of funds to implement new technology. Generally, respondents provided extensive comments about the constraints on school effectiveness which resulted from inadequate funding for staff training or program upgrading, increased numbers of disruptive, disturbed students, and the changing needs and demands of society.

In conclusion, inadequate funding, inadequate provincial leadership, and the extensive bureaucracy of educational organizations in today's society constituted major barriers to the effectiveness of junior high schools. Several respondent characteristics, which will be discussed in the next two chapters, appeared to create substantial (i.e., $\geq$ 0.5 between means) differences in responses to questionnaire items regarding constraints on school effectiveness: (a) the number of years of experience as a principal in the school, (b) the number of years the school had been in operation, (c) the highest qualification earned by the principal, and (d) the type of school system. Once again, comments from interviewees provided clarification of these issues.

Chapter 7

Relationships Among Demographic Variables and Constraints on Principal Effectiveness

The following population characteristics were identified for consideration in analyzing the importance of each demographic variable on principal effectiveness as listed in the questionnaire: (a) age of the principal, (b) total number of years served as a principal, (c) number of years of experience as a principal in the school, (d) number of years the school has been in operation, (e) highest qualification earned by the principal, (f) type of school system, (g) type of community in which the school is located, and (h) number of students enrolled in the school. Responses for each factor from #10 to #33 were analyzed based on groups of respondents established for each characteristic. Results have been reported in this format in order to identify relationships between groups which represent an arbitrarily chosen substantial difference of 0.50 or more between means for each group. All other means are reported in Tables 7.1 to 7.8. The scale used is described below:

0 = not at all a constraint,

1 = somewhat important constraint,

2 = moderately important constraint,

3 = very important constraint, and

4 = highly important constraint.

Age of the Principal

Table 7.1 provides a summary of results. Respondents were placed into three groups according to their age: (a) group 1: 45 or younger, (b) group 2: 46-50, and (c) group 3: 51 or older. Based on this characteristic, there were four sets of means that differed substantially.

Responses to the "amount of time required for administration (management tasks, details)" had a substantial difference (0.65) between group 1 principals and those in group 2, indicating that this variable was considered to be a more important constraint by principals who were 45 years of age or younger. Similarly, means for "teaching load" were different (0.60) for groups 1 and 2; once again, group 1 principals viewed this variable as a substantially more important constraint on principal effectiveness. There was also a difference between groups 2 and 1 (0.51) for "time taken in dealing with problem students" but group 2 regarded this variable more as a constraint than those who were 45 years of age or younger. Finally, for "variations in ability of support staff" a difference of (0.62) was reported between individuals aged 46-50 and those 51 years of age or older, with the former group having a higher mean.

Table 7.1

Means of Extent to Which Factors Were Perceived to Be Constraints on Effectiveness of Principals (Classified by Age of the Principals)

	Factor	Mean extent as constraint		
		45 or younger (n=23)	46-50 (n=31)	51 or older (n=39)
10.	Provincial requirements/regulations	1.57	1.55	1.67
11.	Policies of your school system	1.21	1.50	1.46
12.	Inadequate funding	2.79	3.13	3.05
13.	Insufficient space	2.21	2.13	1.72
14.	Inadequate physical facilities	2.50	2.20	2.13
15.	Lack of support from system supervisor	0.63	0.57	0.62
16.	Amount of time required for administration	2.42	1.77	2.21
17.	Lack of flexibility in applying school system policies	0.91	1.39	1.03
18.	Lack of opportunity to select staff	1.33	1.35	1.26
19.	Your teaching load	1.08	0.48	0.72
20.	Ineffective communication from central office staff to your school	1.08	1.07	1.00
21.	Lack of time for planning	2.08	1.74	1.82
22.	Lack of time for administering student activities	2.00	1.67	1.77
23.	Lack of time for your professional growth	2.21	1.97	1.72
24.	Time taken in dealing with problem students	2.38	2.65	3.15
25.	Pressures from the community	1.04	1.55	1.18
26.	Lack of parental support	1.54	1.19	1.66
27.	Resistance to change by staff	1.46	1.87	1.92
28.	Too many students	0.83	0.55	0.84
29.	Too few students	0.78	0.68	0.69
30.	Lack of staff mobility	2.25	2.16	2.03
31.	Variations in teaching ability of certificated staff	1.83	1.61	1.64
32.	Variations in ability of support staff	1.25	1.52	0.90
33.	Lack of time for supervising staff	2.43	2.07	2.10

Principals rated the extent to which each factor was a constraint on this 5-point scale; 0 = not at all; 1 = somewhat important; 2 = moderately important; 3 = very important; 4 = highly important.

Total Number of Years Served as a Principal

The principals who responded to the questionnaire were divided into three groups as outlined in Table 7.2, according to the total number of years they had served as a principal: (a) group 1: less than 3, (b) group 2: 4-9, and (c) group 3: 10 or more. There were differences between groups for responses to eight variables.

First, there was a difference between group 1 and groups 2 (0.70) and 3 (0.73) for "inadequate physical facilities," because principals who had served less than three years as principal indicated this variable more of a constraint on their effectiveness than all others who responded. Similarly, group 1 respondents viewed the "amount of time required for administration (management tasks, details)" to be a more important (0.60) constraint on their effectiveness than did individuals in group 2. There was also a difference between group 1 and groups 2 (0.59) and 3 (0.65) with regard to "the principal's teaching load;" principals with less than three years of experience thought this was a more important constraint on their effectiveness.

For "ineffective communication from central office staff to your school," responses by group 2 individuals were different from those in groups 1 (0.82) and 3 (0.65); therefore, individuals with 4-9 years of experience found this to be a more important constraint than others. Principals in group 3 with ten or more years of experience identified "time taken in dealing with problem students" to be a more serious constraint (0.64) than those in group 2 with 4-9 years of experience. There was also a difference (0.58) between means for principals in

Table 7.2

Means of Extent to Which Factors Were Perceived to Be Constraints on Effectiveness of Principals (Classified by Number of Years Served as a Principal)

Factor	Mean extent as constraint		
	Less than 3 (n=14)	4-9 (n=31)	10 or more (n=49)
10. Provincial requirements/regulations	1.43	1.40	1.78
11. Policies of your school system	1.54	1.19	1.51
12. Inadequate funding	3.00	2.90	3.08
13. Insufficient space	1.79	2.13	1.94
14. Inadequate physical facilities	2.86	2.16	2.13
15. Lack of support from system supervisor	0.38	0.74	0.57
16. Amount of time required for administration	2.50	1.90	2.14
17. Lack of flexibility in applying school system policies	1.14	1.03	1.16
18. Lack of opportunity to select staff	1.21	1.23	1.39
19. Your teaching load	1.43	0.84	0.47
20. Ineffective communication from central office staff to your school	0.85	1.67	1.02
21. Lack of time for planning	2.06	1.97	1.76
22. Lack of time for administering student activities	1.71	1.77	1.84
23. Lack of time for your professional growth	1.86	1.97	1.92
24. Time taken in dealing with problem students	2.64	2.42	3.06
25. Pressures from the community	1.21	1.23	1.31
26. Lack of parental support	1.93	1.45	1.35
27. Resistance to change by staff	1.71	2.10	1.61
28. Too many students	0.46	0.67	0.86
29. Too few students	1.21	0.53	0.67
30. Lack of staff mobility	2.21	2.35	1.96
31. Variations in teaching ability of certificated staff	1.62	2.03	1.47
32. Variations in ability of support staff	1.21	1.26	1.14
33. Lack of time for supervising staff	2.08	2.06	2.28

Principals rated the extent to which each factor was a constraint on this 5-point scale; 0 = not at all; 1 = somewhat important; 2 = moderately important; 3 = very important; 4 = highly important.

groups 1 and 3; those with less than three years of experience reported this to be a more important constraint than did those with ten or more years. Similarly, the respondents in group 1 viewed "too few students" to be a more serious constraint than any other respondents; differences existed between group 1 and groups 2 (0.58) and 3 (0.54). The final difference occurred between groups 2 and 3 (0.56) for "variations in teaching ability of certificated staff;" individuals in group 2 identified this as a more important constraint to their effectiveness.

Years of Experience as a Principal in the School

As reported in Table 7.3, the individuals who responded to the questionnaire were divided into four groups based on the number of years of experience as a principal they had in their current schools. The following groups were formed: group 1: 1 year, (b) group 2: 2-3 years, (c) group 3: 4-6 years, and (d) group 4: 7 or more years. A total of eight variables had differences between groups.

First, based on means for each group, a difference between groups 1 and 3 (0.59) was reported for "inadequate funding." Therefore, principals with one year of experience at the school considered this more important as a constraint than did those with 4-6 years. There were several differences between groups for "insufficient space." Means for principals in group 1 differed from groups 2 (0.60), 3 (1.28), and 4 (0.55). In addition, there were differences for means of groups 2 and 3 (0.68) and groups 3 and 4 (0.73), although individuals in group 1 reported that this was a more important constraint than all other groups. Likewise, for "inadequate physical facilities," group 1's mean was higher and different from

Table 7.3

Means of Extent to Which Factors Were Perceived to Be Constraints on Effectiveness of Principals (Classified by Years of Experience as a Principal in the School)

Factor	Mean extent as constraint			
	1 (n=20)	2-3 (n=30)	4-6 (n=22)	7 or more (n=22)
10. Provincial requirements/regulations	1.80	1.59	1.64	1.41
11. Policies of your school system	1.47	1.27	1.41	1.55
12. Inadequate funding	3.30	3.10	2.71	2.91
13. Insufficient space	2.60	2.00	1.32	2.05
14. Inadequate physical facilities	3.11	2.40	1.59	1.95
15. Lack of support from system supervisor	0.47	0.60	0.45	0.86
16. Amount of time required for administration	2.10	2.47	2.00	1.77
17. Lack of flexibility in applying school system policies	1.10	1.14	0.95	1.27
18. Lack of opportunity to select staff	1.25	1.43	1.23	1.27
19. Your teaching load	0.80	1.10	0.63	0.27
20. Ineffective communication from central office staff to your school	1.11	0.79	0.91	1.45
21. Lack of time for planning	2.00	2.00	1.82	1.59
22. Lack of time for administering student activities	1.89	1.77	1.73	1.82
23. Lack of time for your professional growth	2.10	1.80	1.91	1.95
24. Time taken in dealing with problem students	2.80	2.63	3.00	2.77
25. Pressures from the community	1.25	1.17	1.27	1.41
26. Lack of parental support	1.70	1.67	1.32	1.14
27. Resistance to change by staff	1.50	2.00	1.73	1.82
28. Too many students	0.60	0.68	0.91	0.77
29. Too few students	1.30	0.59	0.45	0.59
30. Lack of staff mobility	2.20	2.27	2.09	1.91
31. Variations in teaching ability of certificated staff	1.63	1.93	1.68	1.36
32. Variations in ability of support staff	1.05	1.33	1.18	1.37
33. Lack of time for supervising staff	2.20	2.04	2.29	2.23

Principals rated the extent to which each factor was a constraint on this 5-point scale; 0 = not at all; 1 = somewhat important; 2 = moderately important; 3 = very important; 4 = highly important.

groups 2 (0.71), and 3 (1.52); a difference between means for groups 2 and 3 was also discovered (0.81). With regard to the "amount of time required for administration (management tasks, details)," group 2's mean was different from that of group 4 (0.70) because principals with 7 or more years of experience at the school indicated this was more important than those with 2-3 years. Group 4 respondents also viewed "ineffective communication from central office staff to your school" as different from groups 2 (0.66) and 3 (0.54). For "lack of parental support," the differences were between groups 4 and 2 (0.53) and groups 4 and 1 (0.56), with the mean of group 1 being the highest. Further, the mean of group 1 for "too few students" was statistically different from groups 2 (0.71), 3(0.85), and 4 (0.71). Principals with 1 year of experience proposed that this variable was a more important constraint on their effectiveness than those with more experience. The last major difference which was recorded for "variations in teaching ability of certificated staff;" the mean for group 2 was different (0.57) from that of group 4 because respondents with 2-3 years of experience suggested this was a more important constraint than those with 7 or more years of experience.

Age of the School

Principals were divided into the following three groups according to the number of years the school had been in operation: (a) group 1: 15 or less, (b) group 2: 16-24, and (c) group 3: 25 or more. There were ten variables which had differences between groups; these are summarized in Table 7.4.

With regard to "provincial requirements/regulations" a difference was reported between groups 2 and 1 (0.55); group 2 had a higher mean indicating

Table 7.4

Means of Extent to Which Factors Were Perceived to Be Constraints on Effectiveness of Principals (Classified by Age of the School)

Factor	Mean extent as constraint		
	15 or less (n=12)	16-24 (n=25)	25 or more (n=57)
10. Provincial requirements/regulations	1.33	1.88	1.54
11. Policies of your school system	1.25	1.63	1.35
12. Inadequate funding	2.58	3.00	3.11
13. Insufficient space	2.33	1.72	2.02
14. Inadequate physical facilities	2.00	2.44	2.21
15. Lack of support from system supervisor	0.75	0.46	0.63
16. Amount of time required for administration	2.00	2.28	2.07
17. Lack of flexibility in applying school system policies	1.00	1.67	1.22
18. Lack of opportunity to select staff	0.58	1.48	1.39
19. Your teaching load	0.50	0.76	0.77
20. Ineffective communication from central office staff to your school	1.08	0.83	1.13
21. Lack of time for planning	1.58	2.08	1.82
22. Lack of time for administering student activities	1.75	1.52	1.93
23. Lack of time for your professional growth	1.67	1.80	2.04
24. Time taken in dealing with problem students	2.33	2.56	2.98
25. Pressures from the community	1.17	1.20	1.32
26. Lack of parental support	1.42	1.68	1.39
27. Resistance to change by staff	1.08	2.28	1.72
28. Too many students	1.25	0.61	0.68
29. Too few students	0.33	0.92	0.70
30. Lack of staff mobility	1.50	2.64	2.04
31. Variations in teaching ability of certificated staff	1.83	1.60	1.68
32. Variations in ability of support staff	1.33	1.04	1.23
33. Lack of time for supervising staff	1.92	2.21	2.22

Principals rated the extent to which each factor was a constraint on this 5-point scale; 0 = not at all; 1 = somewhat important; 2 = moderately important; 3 = very important; 4 = highly important.

this variable was seen as more of a constraint to principals where the school was in operation for 16-24 years. There was also a higher mean for group 3 (0.53) and group 2 for "inadequate funding." However, the mean for group 1 was higher than that of group 2 (0.61) for "insufficient space," therefore principals in schools operating for 15 years or less thought that this was a more serious constraint than did those in all other groups. The means for group 1 differed from means for groups 2 (0.90) and 3 (0.81) for the "lack of opportunity to select staff" so once again these principals regarded this variable as a more important constraint to their effectiveness than did all other groups. There was a difference between groups 2 and 1 (0.50) for "lack of time for planning" but group 2's mean was higher. Another difference occurred for "time taken in dealing with problem students;" group 3 had a higher mean (0.65) than group 1, indicating this constraint was more important in schools operating for 25 or more years. The next two variables had differences among all groups. For "resistance to change by staff," the mean for group 1 differed from means for groups 2 (1.20) and 3 (0.64); as well, group 2 differed from group 3 (0.56). Principals in group 2 found this variable to be more important as a constraint than those in all other groups.

Likewise, for "too many students," group 1 differed from groups 2 (0.64) and 3 (0.57), with the highest mean being reported for group 1. In relation to "too few students," the means for groups 2 and 1 differed (0.59) because individuals in schools that had been in operation for 16-24 years acknowledged that this was a more important constraint than those in schools which had been in operation for 15 or less years. Finally, in relation to "lack of staff mobility,"

differences existed between means for groups 3 and 2 (0.60), groups 3 and 1 (0.54), and groups 2 and 1 (1.14). For principals in schools that had been in operation for 16-24 years, this variable was more important as a constraint on their effectiveness than for all other principals.

Highest Qualification Earned by the Principal

For this particular characteristic, the respondents were divided into three groups: (a) group 1: BEd, (b) group 2: Diploma, and (c) group 3: master's or a PhD. There were six relationships which were important for these results: Table 7.5 has a summary of these comparisons of means based on the highest qualification earned by the principal.

First, "inadequate funding" had a difference of (0.63) between groups 1 and 2 due to the fact that individuals in group 1 considered it to be a more important constraint on their effectiveness than those in group 2. With regard to the "amount of time required for administration," group 2 principals reported that this variable was more important (0.76) than group 3 principals. There were two differences for "lack of time for planning;" group 2 differed from groups 1 (0.58) and 3 (0.54) because the mean for this group was higher than the other two groups. Group 2 also had a higher mean (0.63) than group 1 for "lack of parental support." Furthermore, there were two differences for "variations in teaching ability of certificated staff;" group 1's mean was lower than groups 2 (0.61) and 3 (0.57) in that this was viewed by principals with a BEd as a less important constraint than all other principals surveyed. Finally, a difference of (0.50) was recorded between groups 2 and 1 for "lack of time for supervising staff;" this

Table 7.5

Means of Extent to Which Factors Were Perceived to Be Constraints on Effectiveness of Principals (Classified by Highest Qualification of Principals)

	Factor	Mean extent as constraint		
		BEd (n=19)	Diploma (n=27)	M/Ph D (n=47)
10.	Provincial requirements/regulations	1.74	1.56	1.59
11.	Policies of your school system	1.58	1.41	1.37
12.	Inadequate funding	3.26	2.63	3.11
13.	Insufficient space	1.68	1.93	2.15
14.	Inadequate physical facilities	2.16	2.19	2.33
15.	Lack of support from system supervisor	0.53	0.52	0.70
16.	Amount of time required for administration	2.05	2.63	1.87
17.	Lack of flexibility in applying school system policies	1.06	1.15	1.15
18.	Lack of opportunity to select staff	1.16	1.19	1.45
19.	Your teaching load	0.47	0.52	0.91
20.	Ineffective communication from central office staff to your school	1.21	1.00	1.02
21.	Lack of time for planning	1.68	2.26	1.72
22.	Lack of time for administering student activities	1.68	1.93	1.76
23.	Lack of time for your professional growth	1.63	1.96	2.00
24.	Time taken in dealing with problem students	2.58	3.07	2.74
25.	Pressures from the community	1.37	1.22	1.26
26.	Lack of parental support	1.11	1.74	1.50
27.	Resistance to change by staff	1.68	1.74	1.87
28.	Too many students	0.94	0.81	0.63
29.	Too few students	0.37	0.85	0.78
30.	Lack of staff mobility	1.84	2.15	2.26
31.	Variations in teaching ability of certificated staff	1.17	1.78	1.74
32.	Variations in ability of support staff	1.47	1.00	1.19
33.	Lack of time for supervising staff	2.00	2.50	2.07

Principals rated the extent to which each factor was a constraint on this 5-point scale; 0 = not at all; 1 = somewhat important; 2 = moderately important; 3 = very important; 4 = highly important.

variable was more important as a constraint to principals with a diploma than those with a BEd.

Type of School System

As noted in Table 7.6 four groups were established to categorize respondents based on the type of school system in which their current school was located: (a) group 1: public, (b) group 2: Catholic and Protestant separate, (c) group 3: county, and (d) group 4: division. The largest number of substantial differences (i.e., 21) occurred between groups for this characteristic, as compared to all other characteristics with regard to constraints on principal or school effectiveness.

The first set of differences occurred between group 2 and groups 1 (0.63) and 3 (0.60) for "policies of your school system;" this variable was more of a constraint by principals in Catholic and Protestant separate school systems. In relation to "inadequate funding," there were three noteworthy differences; the means for principals in group 3 were lower than those for groups 1 (1.34), 2 (1.40), and 4 (1.53), so this variable was less important in county systems than in all other types of systems. With regard to "insufficient space," there was only one difference; group 4 principals viewed this as a more important (0.78) constraint to their effectiveness than did principals in group 1. Another difference occurred between means for groups 1 and groups 2 (0.77), for groups 2 and 4 (0.90), and for groups 3 and 4 (0.60); the constraint "inadequate physical facilities" was most important for principals in school divisions than in other types of systems. There were two differences for "lack of support from system supervisor." Group 3's

Table 7.6

Means of Extent to Which Factors Were Perceived to Be Constraints on Effectiveness of Principals (Classified by Type of School System)

Factor	Mean extent as constraint			
	Public (n=65)	Catholic & Protestant Separate (n=10)	County (n=10)	Division (n=6)
10. Provincial requirements/regulations	1.58	1.80	1.80	1.50
11. Policies of your school system	1.37	2.00	1.40	1.67
12. Inadequate funding	3.14	3.22	1.80	3.33
13. Insufficient space	1.89	2.20	2.20	2.67
14. Inadequate physical facilities	2.37	1.60	1.90	2.50
15. Lack of support from system supervisor	0.55	0.70	1.10	0.33
16. Amount of time required for administration	2.02	2.30	2.40	2.83
17. Lack of flexibility in applying school system policies	1.06	1.80	0.80	1.50
18. Lack of opportunity to select staff	1.36	1.80	0.70	1.33
19. Your teaching load	0.59	1.30	0.90	1.33
20. Ineffective communication from central office staff to your school	1.02	1.40	0.90	1.00
21. Lack of time for planning	1.82	1.70	2.20	2.50
22. Lack of time for administering student activities	1.70	2.00	2.40	2.00
23. Lack of time for your professional growth	1.76	2.40	2.30	2.67
24. Time taken in dealing with problem students	2.78	3.60	2.40	2.83
25. Pressures from the community	1.20	1.90	1.20	1.33
26. Lack of parental support	1.54	1.70	1.10	1.50
27. Resistance to change by staff	1.85	2.20	1.50	1.00
28. Too many students	0.69	0.60	1.30	0.83
29. Too few students	0.80	0.60	0.40	0.33
30. Lack of staff mobility	2.17	2.00	2.10	2.17
31. Variations in teaching ability of certificated staff	1.69	1.40	2.10	1.83
32. Variations in ability of support staff	1.23	1.40	0.90	1.33
33. Lack of time for supervising staff	2.11	2.40	2.10	2.83

Principals rated the extent to which each factor was a constraint on this 5-point scale; 0 = not at all; 1 = somewhat important; 2 = moderately important; 3 = very important; 4 = highly important.

mean was higher than that of principals in groups 1 (0.55) and 4 (0.77).

Further, the mean for principals in group 4 was higher than that for groups 1 (0.81) and 2 (0.53) for the "amount of time required for administration (management tasks, details)." Therefore, principals in school divisions acknowledged this as a more important constraint than did those in other types of systems. In relation to "lack of flexibility in applying school system policies," the following differences existed between all four groups: groups 1 and 2 (0.74), groups 2 and 3 (1.00), and groups 3 and 4 (0.70). The mean for group 2 was the highest of all four groups indicating that this variable was more important as a constraint to principals in Catholic and Protestant separate systems. A similar set of differences occurred between means for "lack of opportunity to select staff." Comparing means, group 1 differed from group 3 (0.66), group 2 differed from group 3 (1.10), and group 3 differed from group 4 (0.63). The mean for this variable was the highest for principals in group 2 and the lowest for those in group 3. Regarding "your teaching load," principals in the public systems viewed this variable to be less important as a constraint than did those in Catholic and Protestant separate systems (0.58) and in school divisions (0.74). Another difference was reported between the means for groups 2 and 3 (0.50) for "ineffective communication from central office staff to your school;" this was a more important constraint for principals in group 2 than in group 3.

Furthermore, several differences occurred for the "lack of time for planning." The mean for group 4 principals was higher (and thus indicated as a more serious constraint) than the means for groups 1 (0.68) and 2 (0.80). Also, a

difference occurred between groups 2 and 3 (0.50) in that this variable was regarded by county principals as a more important constraint than by principals in Catholic and Protestant separate systems. For the "lack of time for administering student activities," only one difference was recorded; group 3's mean was higher (0.70) than that of group 1, consequently this variable was seen to be more important to individuals in county systems than in public systems. The next variable with differences between means was the "lack of time for your professional growth." Group 1's mean was lower than the means for all other groups, i.e., group 2 (0.64), group 3 (0.54), and group 4 (0.91); this indicated that principals in public systems saw this variable as a less important constraint to their effectiveness than did principals in all other types of systems. There were also several differences for the next variable (i.e., "time taken in dealing with problem students"). Group 1's mean was lower than group 2's mean (0.82); group 2 had a higher mean than those for groups 3 (1.20) and 4 (0.77). This constraint was identified by principals in Catholic and Protestant separate systems as having a more important impact on their effectiveness than by principals in all other types of systems. Similarly, several differences occurred between means for "pressures from the community." Group 2's mean was higher than that of group 1 (0.70), 3 (0.70), and 4 (0.57); this indicates that principals in Catholic and Protestant separate systems regarded community pressures as a more important constraint to their effectiveness than principals in other types of systems.

Conversely, only one difference occurred for "lack of parental support;" principals in county systems considered this less important as a constraint (0.60)

than principals in Catholic and Protestant separate systems. In relation to "resistance to change by staff," there were the following differences between means for groups: groups 1 and 4 (0.85), groups 2 and 3 (0.70), and groups 2 and 4 (1.20). The mean for principals in Catholic and Protestant separate systems was the highest among all four groups, while the mean for principals in school divisions was the lowest. Furthermore, group 3's mean was higher for the next variable than the means for groups 1 (0.61) and 2 (0.70) so "too many students" was more important to principals in county systems. One difference occurred between means for groups 3 and 2 (0.70) for "variations in teaching ability of certificated staff," where principals in county systems suggested that this constraint was more important than did those in Catholic and Protestant separate systems. Conversely, principals in county systems proposed that the "variations in ability of support staff" were less important (0.50) than did those in Catholic and Protestant separate systems. The final variable with differences between groups was "lack of time for supervising staff." The mean for group 4 principals was higher than the means for group 3 (0.73) and group 1 (0.72) indicating that as a constraint, this variable was more important for principals in school divisions than in county or public systems.

Type of Community in Which the School Is Located

Table 7.7 presents data for respondents who were divided into the following three groups based on the type of community where their school was located: (a) group 1: large urban, (b) group 2: small urban, and (c) group 3: rural. A total of five substantial differences was reported between these groups.

Table 7.7

Means of Extent to Which Factors Were Perceived to Be Constraints on Effectiveness of Principals (Classified by Type of Community in Which School is Located)

Factor	Mean extent as constraint		
	Large Urban (n=63)	Small Urban (n=18)	Rural (n=13)
10. Provincial requirements/regulations	1.61	1.89	1.15
11. Policies of your school system	1.44	1.50	1.15
12. Inadequate funding	3.13	2.72	2.85
13. Insufficient space	1.92	2.06	2.15
14. Inadequate physical facilities	2.23	2.33	2.23
15. Lack of support from system supervisor	0.58	0.67	0.62
16. Amount of time required for administration	2.08	2.56	1.69
17. Lack of flexibility in applying school system policies	1.16	1.06	1.00
18. Lack of opportunity to select staff	1.48	1.00	0.92
19. Your teaching load	0.57	1.00	1.15
20. Ineffective communication from central office staff to your school	1.00	1.29	0.92
21. Lack of time for planning	1.84	1.89	1.92
22. Lack of time for administering student activities	1.77	1.83	1.85
23. Lack of time for your professional growth	1.79	2.39	1.92
24. Time taken in dealing with problem students	2.87	2.67	2.54
25. Pressures from the community	1.29	1.33	1.08
26. Lack of parental support	1.54	1.35	1.31
27. Resistance to change by staff	1.94	2.78	1.77
28. Too many students	0.69	0.83	0.83
29. Too few students	0.73	0.61	0.77
30. Lack of staff mobility	2.14	1.83	2.46
31. Variations in teaching ability of certificated staff	1.73	1.39	1.85
32. Variations in ability of support staff	1.24	0.89	1.38
33. Lack of time for supervising staff	2.20	2.28	1.92

Principals rated the extent to which each factor was a constraint on this 5-point scale; 0 = not at all; 1 = somewhat important; 2 = moderately important; 3 = very important; 4 = highly important.

With regard to "provincial requirements/regulations," a substantial difference occurred between the means for groups 3 and 2 (0.74), acknowledging that principals in rural communities saw this as a less important constraint than those in small urban communities. Similarly, the principals in rural communities found the "amount of time required for administration (management tasks, details)" to be less important as a constraint (0.87) than did principals in small urban communities. In relation to the "lack of time for your professional growth," principals in large urban communities considered this constraint less important (0.60) than did those in small urban communities. Principals in small urban communities regarded "resistance to change by staff" as a more important constraint than did principals in small urban communities (0.84) and rural communities (1.01). The final difference existed between groups 3 and 2 (0.63); "lack of staff mobility" was identified by principals in rural communities as a more important constraint to their effectiveness than by principals in small urban settings.

Number of Students Enrolled in the School

The schools involved in the questionnaire were divided into three groups according to the size of their student populations: (a) group 1: less than 300, (b) group 2: 300-499, and (c) group 3: 500 or more. A total of 12 variables had substantial differences between various groups; this information is presented in Table 7.8.

Regarding "insufficient space," the mean for group 3 principals was higher than means for groups 1 (0.96) and 2 (0.68), therefore this variable was more

Table 7.8

Means of Extent to Which Factors Were Perceived to Be Constraints on Effectiveness of Principals (Classified by Number of Students Enrolled in the School)

	Factor	Mean extent as constraint		
		Less than 300 (n=23)	300-499 (n=40)	500 or more (n=33)
10.	Provincial requirements/regulations	1.43	1.53	1.81
11.	Policies of your school system	1.62	1.28	1.42
12.	Inadequate funding	3.14	3.13	2.79
13.	Insufficient space	1.52	1.80	2.48
14.	Inadequate physical facilities	2.00	2.73	2.38
15.	Lack of support from system supervisor	0.58	0.56	0.67
16.	Amount of time required for administration	2.14	2.30	1.88
17.	Lack of flexibility in applying school system policies	1.19	1.18	1.00
18.	Lack of opportunity to select staff	0.90	1.63	1.18
19.	Your teaching load	1.33	0.78	0.30
20.	Ineffective communication from central office staff to your school	1.57	0.82	0.97
21.	Lack of time for planning	2.05	1.88	1.73
22.	Lack of time for administering student activities	2.05	1.79	1.64
23.	Lack of time for your professional growth	2.29	1.95	1.67
24.	Time taken in dealing with problem students	2.76	2.88	2.70
25.	Pressures from the community	1.19	1.28	1.30
26.	Lack of parental support	2.00	1.50	1.12
27.	Resistance to change by staff	1.29	2.00	1.85
28.	Too many students	0.33	0.72	1.03
29.	Too few students	1.33	0.78	0.22
30.	Lack of staff mobility	1.76	2.53	1.88
31.	Variations in teaching ability of certificated staff	1.24	1.92	1.67
32.	Variations in ability of support staff	1.05	1.30	1.15
33.	Lack of time for supervising staff	2.30	2.23	2.03

Principals rated the extent to which each factor was a constraint on this 5-point scale; 0 = not at all; 1 = somewhat important; 2 = moderately important; 3 = very important; 4 = highly important.

important for principals in schools with 500 or more students than for other respondents. Group 2 principals viewed "inadequate physical facilities" as a more important constraint than did group 1 principals who were in schools with less than 300 students. Similarly, group 2 respondents suggested that "lack of opportunity to select staff" was a more important constraint than did those in group 1. However, principals in group 1 had a higher mean than those in groups 2 (0.55) and 3 (1.03) for "your teaching load," indicating that principals in smaller schools (i.e., less than 300 students) found this variable to be a more important constraint to their effectiveness than did principals in larger schools. Similarly, group 1 principals thought that the "ineffective communication from central office staff to your school" was more important than did principals in groups 2 (0.75) or 3 (0.60). With regard to the "lack of time for your professional growth," principals in schools with less than 300 students acknowledged that this variable was a more important constraint (0.62) than did principals in schools with 500 or more students. Group 1 principals also indicated that the "lack of parental support" was a more important constraint than did principals in groups 2 (0.50) or 3 (0.88). For "resistance to change by staff," group 2 had the highest mean which differed from groups 1 (0.71) and 3 (0.56); therefore, this variable was more important for principals in schools with 300-499 students than for other respondents. One difference was noted for "too many students;" group 3 principals considered this variable more important (0.70) than those in group 1. Regarding "too few students," this variable was thought to be more important as a constraint to effectiveness by principals in group 1 than either groups 2 (0.55) or 3 (1.11).

"Lack of staff mobility" was however viewed as a more serious constraint to principals in schools with 300-499 students than principals with 500 or more students (0.65) and principals with less than 300 students (0.77). The final difference was recorded between means for groups 2 and 1 (0.68) for "variations in teaching ability of certificated staff" which suggested that principals with 300-499 students found this a greater constraint to their effectiveness than did principals with less than 300 students.

Summary

Comparisons of means for factors related to leadership effectiveness were made based on eight characteristics of questionnaire respondents; differences of at least 0.50 between group means were considered to be "substantial." Comments added to the questionnaire and information gained during interviews were used to provide illustrations of questionnaire results.

Only four factors showed substantial differences when responses were categorized by age of the principal. Principals in the youngest age group--45 or younger--considered the amount of time for administration and their teaching load to be more important constraints than did those in the middle age group (i.e., 46-50). Those in this middle age group perceived support staff ability and the time taken with problem students to be more important constraints than did principals in other groups.

When principals were grouped by the total number of years served as principal, eight factors showed substantial differences among group means. Respondents with fewer than three years of experience considered administrative

time, teaching load, parental support, and physical facilities to be more important constraints than did principals with four or more years of experience. Principals with 10 or more years of experience viewed only one factor--time taken with problem students--as a substantially more important constraint than did other respondents.

The third characteristic used for comparison was the number of years of experience as a principal in the school. Individuals with only one year of experience at the school indicated that the following factors were substantially more important constraints: inadequate funding, space, physical facilities, parental support, and number of students. Principals with four or more years of experience at the school regarded none of the factors to be substantially more important than did all other groups of principals.

The number of years the school had been in operation was also used for comparison of means. For principals in newer schools--those in operation 15 years or less--eight factors were substantially less important constraints than they were for individuals in older schools (including time for planning and problem students, funding, staff mobility, and provincial requirements). The only factor that principals in newer schools considered to be a more important constraint was insufficient space.

The fifth characteristic for comparison was the highest degree attained by the principal. Individuals with a bachelor's degree responded differently from those with more training for five items. For one factor--inadequate funding--the mean was substantially higher, whereas it was lower for factors related to lack of

time for planning and staff supervision, lack of parental support, and variations in teaching ability. However, the means for respondents with a diploma were substantially higher than those for respondents with a master's/doctoral degree for two factors (i.e., the amount of time for administration and planning). All means for respondents with a master's/doctoral degree were substantially lower than those for other groups.

The largest number of factors with substantial differences (i.e., 21) resulted when respondents were categorized by the type of school system. Individuals in public schools had substantially lower means than did those in other types of systems for ten factors, but their mean was substantially higher than means for other groups for inadequate funding. Means for respondents in school divisions differed substantially from the means of other groups for 13 factors; 11 of which had a substantially higher mean than the means for other groups (i.e., insufficient space, facilities, time for administrative tasks, flexibility, and system communication) and two of which had a lower mean (i.e., system supervisor support and staff resistance to change). Further, there were 15 differences between responses for Catholic/Protestant separate systems and county systems; means for the former group were substantially higher for 11 of these factors--system policies, funding, flexibility, communication, and time spent with problem students--than for means of other groups.

With regard to the type of community in which the school is located, five substantial differences were recorded. Means were substantially higher for principals in small urban districts than for those in rural districts for four factors

(i.e., provincial requirements, insufficient time for professional growth, time required for administrative tasks, and staff resistance to change) but they were lower for one factor (i.e., lack of staff mobility).

Twelve factors showed substantial differences between means when categorized by the number of students enrolled in the school. Principals of small schools--less than 300 students--had seven means which were substantially lower than were those for principals of larger schools. However, the means were substantially higher for five factors, including too few students, ineffective central office communication, lack of parental support, and teaching load. Principals in large schools (i.e., 500 students or more) had substantially lower means than did those in other groups for all items except insufficient space, too many students, and resistance to change by staff.

Chapter 8

Relationships Among Demographic Variables and Constraints on School Effectiveness

The following population characteristics were identified for consideration in analysis of the importance of each variable as a constraint on school effectiveness as listed in the questionnaire: (a) age of the principal, (b) total number of years served as a principal, (c) number of years of experience as a principal in the school, (d) age of the school, (e) highest qualification earned by the principal, (f) type of school system, (g) type of community in which the school is located, and (h) number of students enrolled in the school. Responses for each factor from #34 to #55 were analyzed based on groups of respondents established for each characteristic. Results have been reported in this format in order to identify relationships among groups which represent an arbitrarily chosen substantial difference of 0.50 or more between means for each group. All other means are reported in Tables 8.1 to 8.8. The scale used is described below:

0 = not at all a constraint,

1 = somewhat important constraint,

2 = moderately important constraint,

3 = very important constraint, and

4 = highly important constraint.

Age of the Principal

Table 8.1 presents a summary of the information based on the age of the principal. Respondents were divided into the following three groups based on the

Table 8.1

Means of Extent to Which Factors Were Perceived to Be Constraints on Effectiveness of Schools (Classified by Age of Principals)

Factor	Mean extent as constraint		
	45 or younger (n=23)	46-50 (n=31)	51 or older (n=39)
34. Size of your school system	1.08	0.87	0.90
35. Complexity of your school system	1.13	1.13	1.21
36. Overall goals of your school system	0.96	0.84	0.95
37. Overall policies of your school system	1.13	1.10	1.21
38. Government legislation/regulations	1.71	1.65	1.82
39. Role of educational organizations in society	1.74	1.65	1.92
40. Routineness of procedures	1.68	1.68	1.56
41. Degree of bureaucratization	1.83	1.90	1.90
42. Composition of your staff	1.79	1.39	1.37
43. Stage in the life cycle of your school	1.92	1.29	1.16
44. Financial support provided by your system	2.25	2.45	2.63
45. Financial support provided by the province	3.25	3.26	3.26
46. Over-emphasis on technology in school	0.88	0.73	0.69
47. Tendency of school system to maintain status quo	1.46	1.35	1.18
48. Ineffective leadership within your school system	1.17	1.16	1.26
49. Ineffective educational leadership within the province	2.39	2.48	2.46
50. Your degree of control over budgetary matters	1.33	1.29	1.31
51. Lack of staff turnover in your school	1.75	1.71	1.38
52. Too much staff turnover in your school	0.33	0.26	0.55
53. Existence of grade-level tests for curricular areas	1.29	0.90	0.97
54. Lack of financial support for staff professional development	1.50	1.87	1.62
55. Amount of time per day spent on core subjects	0.83	0.45	0.76

Principals rated the extent to which each factor was a constraint on this 5-point scale; 0 = not at all; 1 = somewhat important; 2 = moderately important; 3 = very important; 4 = highly important.

age of the principal: (a) group 1: 45 years or younger, (b) group 2: 46-50 years, and (c) group 3: 51 years or older. Each of the factors listed in Question 11 on the questionnaire referred to variables which could be considered as constraints on school effectiveness. The only variable which reflected differences of 0.50 or more among means was the "stage in the life cycle of your school (start-up, established, declining)." The difference between the means for groups 1 and 2 was (0.63) and for groups 1 and 3 was (0.73). Thus, principals in the youngest group considered the stage in the life cycle of the school to be a more serious constraint to school effectiveness than did those in the other two groups.

Total Number of Years Served as a Principal

Table 8.2 presents a comparison of results based on the number of years of experience as a principal for questionnaire respondents. Respondents were divided into three groups based on the total number of years served as a principal: (a) group 1: less than 3, (b) group 2: 4-9, and (c) group 3: 10 or more. There were four variables which reflected differences of 0.50 or more between means in the groups.

The "stage in the life cycle of your school (start-up, established, declining)" had a substantial difference in means between groups 3 and 2 (0.68) and between groups 3 and 1 (1.05). Therefore, principals with 10 or more years of experience considered this variable to be less important as a constraint on school effectiveness than did those with 4-9 years of experience; the mean for principals with less than three years of experience was the highest among all groups. In addition, a difference in means existed between groups 1 and 2 (0.54) and groups

Table 8.2

Means of Extent to Which Factors Were Perceived to Be Constraints on Effectiveness of Schools (Classified by Number of Years Served as a Principal)

Factor	Mean extent as constraint		
	Less than 3 (n=14)	4-9 (n=31)	10 or more (n=49)
34. Size of your school system	0.57	1.00	1.00
35. Complexity of your school system	0.93	1.32	1.12
36. Overall goals of your school system	0.79	0.90	0.96
37. Overall policies of your school system	0.93	1.13	1.22
38. Government legislation/regulations	1.57	1.58	1.88
39. Role of educational organizations in society	2.00	1.74	1.76
40. Routineness of procedures	1.86	1.55	1.61
41. Degree of bureaucratization	1.79	1.94	1.88
42. Composition of your staff	1.64	1.60	1.37
43. Stage in the life cycle of your school	2.07	1.70	1.02
44. Financial support provided by your system	2.50	2.23	2.61
45. Financial support provided by the province	2.79	3.33	3.35
46. Over-emphasis on technology in school	0.38	0.84	0.80
47. Tendency of school system to maintain status quo	1.29	1.68	1.08
48. Ineffective leadership within your school system	0.86	1.42	1.67
49. Ineffective educational leadership within the province	2.31	2.65	2.37
50. Your degree of control over budgetary matters	1.43	1.26	1.31
51. Lack of staff turnover in your school	1.86	1.58	1.51
52. Too much staff turnover in your school	0.36	0.43	0.39
53. Existence of grade-level tests for curricular areas	1.00	1.23	0.92
54. Lack of financial support for staff professional development	1.64	1.45	1.82
55. Amount of time per day spent on core subjects	0.50	0.65	0.75

Principals rated the extent to which each factor was a constraint on this 5-point scale; 0 = not at all; 1 = somewhat important; 2 = moderately important; 3 = very important; 4 = highly important.

1 and 3 (0.56) which suggested that principals with more experience (i.e., 4 or more years) considered the financial support provided by the province to be a more serious constraint on school effectiveness than did other principals. With regard to "ineffective leadership within your school system," a substantial difference (0.60) between groups 2 and 3 occurred. Consequently, responses for individuals with 4-9 years of experience differed substantially from those for principals who had 10 or more years of experience. Finally, "ineffective educational leadership within your school system" reflected a major difference between the means for groups 1 and 2 (0.56) and for groups 1 and 3 (0.81); this indicated that individuals with less than three years of experience as a principal considered this variable to be a less important constraint than did individuals in the other two groups.

Years of Experience as a Principal in the School

Table 8.3 provides a summary of results when respondents were divided into four groups according to the number of years of experience as a principal in the school. The following groups were formed: (a) group 1: 1 year, (b) group 2: 2-3 years, (c) group 3: 4-6 years, and (d) group 4: 7 or more years. Differences between means for ten variables were identified.

First, for "government legislation/regulations" a substantial difference resulted between responses by individuals in group 1 and those in all other groups, i.e., group 2 (0.52), group 3 (0.66), and group 4 (0.84). There were no differences between any other groups so the principals in their first year at the school considered this variable as a very important constraint on school

Table 8.3

Means of Extent to Which Factors Were Perceived to Be Constraints on Effectiveness of Schools (Classified by Number of Years Served as a Principal in the School)

Factor	Mean extent as constraint			
	1 (n=20)	2-3 (n=30)	4-6 (n=22)	7 or more (n=22)
34. Size of your school system	1.10	0.87	1.10	0.73
35. Complexity of your school system	1.40	1.07	1.27	0.95
36. Overall goals of your school system	1.00	0.83	0.86	1.00
37. Overall policies of your school system	1.15	0.93	1.23	1.36
38. Government legislation/regulations	2.25	1.73	1.59	1.41
39. Role of educational organizations in society	1.80	1.62	1.50	2.27
40. Routineness of procedures	1.45	1.90	1.68	1.36
41. Degree of bureaucratization	1.95	1.90	1.77	1.91
42. Composition of your staff	1.45	1.66	1.68	1.09
43. Stage in the life cycle of your school	1.70	1.50	1.24	1.14
44. Financial support provided by your system	2.80	2.47	2.29	2.36
45. Financial support provided by the province	3.40	3.33	2.95	3.32
46. Over-emphasis on technology in school	0.75	0.59	1.09	0.64
47. Tendency of school system to maintain status quo	1.45	1.33	1.34	1.32
48. Ineffective leadership within your school system	1.25	1.03	0.90	1.68
49. Ineffective educational leadership within the province	2.75	2.41	2.05	2.64
50. Your degree of control over budgetary matters	1.70	1.07	1.23	1.36
51. Lack of staff turnover in your school	1.70	1.73	1.55	1.32
52. Too much staff turnover in your school	0.35	0.31	0.55	0.41
53. Existence of grade-level tests for curricular areas	1.15	0.93	1.14	0.95
54. Lack of financial support for staff professional development	1.70	1.63	1.68	1.68
55. Amount of time per day spent on core subjects	0.65	0.63	0.95	0.50

Principals rated the extent to which each factor was a constraint on this 5-point scale; 0 = not at all; 1 = somewhat important; 2 = moderately important; 3 = very important; 4 = highly important.

effectiveness while it was substantially less important for all other groups. Second, with regard to the "role of educational organizations in society," there were differences between means for groups 4 and 3 (0.77) and for groups 4 and 2 (0.65). Respondents with 7 or more years of experience in school considered this variable to be a very important constraint. A difference between means for the variable "routineness of procedures (timetabling, testing requirements, legislation)" also resulted between groups 2 and 4 (0.54); therefore, principals with 2-3 years of experience in the school considered this variable as a more important constraint than did those with 7 or more years of experience in the school. Fourth, the analysis of questionnaire results revealed a difference between means for groups 4 and 2 (0.57) and groups 4 and 3 (0.59) for the "stage in the life cycle of your school (start-up, established, declining)." This difference indicated that individuals with seven or more years of experience considered this variable less important as a constraint on school effectiveness than did those with 2-6 years of experience. Further, a difference of (0.56) was recorded between the means for groups 1 and 3 for "financial support provided by your system" so individuals with only one year of experience viewed this as a substantially more important constraint than did individuals with seven or more years of experience. The "over-emphasis on technology in the school" demonstrated a difference between means for groups 3 and 2 (0.50) so respondents with 4-6 years of experience thought that this aspect was a more important constraint than did those with 2-3 years of experience as a principal in the school. Further, a difference was identified between means for groups 4 and 3 (0.78) and for groups 4 and 2 (0.65); therefore, principals with

seven or more years of experience considered the "ineffective leadership within our system" to be more important as a constraint than did those with 2-6 years of experience. In addition, for "ineffective educational leadership within the province," a difference between means for groups 1 and 3 (0.70) was found, indicating that individuals with 1 year of experience in the school considered this to be a more important constraint than did those with 4-6 years of experience. Finally, means for groups 1 and 2 differed (0.63) for "your degree of control over budgetary matters." Respondents with one year of experience in the school viewed this as a more important constraint than did those with 2-3 years of experience.

Age of the School

As reported in Table 8.4, the following groups were formed to analyze the results of the questionnaire with regard to the number of years the school has been in operation: (a) group 1: 15 or less, (b) group 2: 16-24, and (c) group 3: 25 or more. A large number of differences was recorded among groups for this characteristic of the respondents.

Analysis of the variable "size of your school system (district, division, county)" reflected a difference between means (0.64) for groups 3 and 1, so respondents in schools that were in operation for 25 or more years regarded this as a substantially more important factor than did principals in schools which had been in operation for 15 or less years. Similarly, groups 3 and 1 reflected a substantial difference (0.61) for the "overall goals of your school system." Principals in group 3 also considered this variable to be more important as a

Table 8.4

Means of Extent to Which Factors Were Perceived to Be Constraints on Effectiveness of Schools (Classified by Age of the School)

Factor	Mean extent as constraint		
	15 or less (n=12)	16-24 (n=25)	25 or more (n=57)
34. Size of your school system	0.50	0.68	1.14
35. Complexity of your school system	1.08	1.00	1.25
36. Overall goals of your school system	0.50	0.68	1.11
37. Overall policies of your school system	1.25	1.20	1.11
38. Government legislation/regulations	1.50	1.76	1.77
39. Role of educational organizations in society	1.58	1.44	1.98
40. Routineness of procedures	1.50	1.80	1.58
41. Degree of bureaucratization	1.75	1.84	1.93
42. Composition of your staff	1.46	1.64	1.42
43. Stage in the life cycle of your school	1.33	1.08	1.55
44. Financial support provided by your system	1.83	2.56	2.57
45. Financial support provided by the province	2.92	3.44	3.25
46. Over-emphasis on technology in school	0.58	0.52	0.89
47. Tendency of school system to maintain status quo	1.42	1.28	1.30
48. Ineffective leadership within your school system	0.83	1.08	1.33
49. Ineffective educational leadership within the province	2.17	2.56	2.46
50. Your degree of control over budgetary matters	1.00	1.20	1.42
51. Lack of staff turnover in your school	1.25	2.28	1.35
52. Too much staff turnover in your school	0.50	0.17	0.47
53. Existence of grade-level tests for curricular areas	1.25	0.80	1.09
54. Lack of financial support for staff professional development	1.25	1.88	1.67
55. Amount of time per day spent on core subjects	0.33	0.76	0.71

Principals rated the extent to which each factor was a constraint on this 5-point scale; 0 = not at all; 1 = somewhat important; 2 = moderately important; 3 = very important; 4 = highly important.

constraint than did those in group 1. Furthermore, a substantial difference (0.54) was found between responses recorded by individuals in groups 3 and 2 for the "role of educational organizations in society." Consequently, individuals in group 3 viewed this as a more important constraint than did those in group 2. Another variable which reflected substantial differences between groups was "financial support provided by your system." Means for group 1 responses differed substantially from those for groups 2 (0.73) and 3 (0.74), indicating that principals of schools which had been in operation 15 or fewer years acknowledged that this variable was less important than did those in schools which had been in operation for 16 years or more.

Similarly, "financial support provided by the province" was considered a less important constraint (0.52) by principals of schools in operation for 15 or less years than by those in schools which were in operation for 16-24 years. With regard to "ineffective leadership within your school system," there was a substantial difference between means of respondents in groups 3 and 1 (0.50); thus principals in schools that were in operation for 15 or less years considered this variable to be less of a constraint than did those in schools that had been in operation for 25 or more years. For "lack of staff turnover in your school," there was a substantial difference between means for groups 2 and 1 (1.03) and groups 2 and 3 (0.93); individuals in schools that had been in operation for 16-24 years thought that this was a substantially more important constraint on school effectiveness than did principals in any other group. The final variable with a difference between means for groups was the "lack of financial support for staff

professional development." Group 2 principals viewed it as a more important factor (0.63) than did those in group 1 based on a comparison of means.

Highest Qualification Earned by the Principal

Table 8.5 provides information regarding comparisons of responses based on the highest qualification earned by the principal. Respondents were divided into three groups: (a) group 1: BEd, (b) group 2: diploma in education, and (c) group 3: master's or PhD. There was a difference among groups for eight different factors.

"Government legislation and regulations" reflected a substantial difference between means for groups 1 and 2 (0.74), since individuals with a BEd considered this variable substantially more important than did those with a diploma. With regard to the "role of educational organizations in society," the mean for principals in group 3 was substantially higher (0.65) than that of principals in group 1, indicating that it was more important as a constraint for group 3 principals. Group 2 respondents had a higher mean (0.78) than did group 1 respondents for the "stage in the life cycle of the school;" this variable was substantially more important to principals with a diploma than to those with a BEd.

Furthermore, the "tendency of the school system to maintain the status quo" was substantially higher with regard to the mean (0.58) for group 1 than group 2, indicating it was a more critical constraint to principals with a BEd than for those with a diploma. "Ineffective educational leadership within the province" was considered by principals with a master's or a PhD to be substantially more important as a constraint (0.57) than for principals with a diploma (group 2). In

Table 8.5

Means of Extent to Which Factors Were Perceived to Be Constraints on Effectiveness of Schools (Classified by Highest Qualification of Principals)

Factor	Mean extent as constraint		
	BEd (n=19)	Diploma (n=27)	M/PhD (n=47)
34. Size of your school system	1.05	0.74	1.02
35. Complexity of your school system	1.11	1.00	1.30
36. Overall goals of your school system	1.11	0.78	0.94
37. Overall policies of your school system	1.16	1.22	1.13
38. Government legislation/regulations	2.11	1.37	1.81
39. Role of educational organizations in society	1.37	1.67	2.02
40. Routineness of procedures	1.79	1.56	1.62
41. Degree of bureaucratization	1.58	1.81	2.06
42. Composition of your staff	1.32	1.56	1.52
43. Stage in the life cycle of your school	0.74	1.52	1.63
44. Financial support provided by your system	2.58	2.26	2.54
45. Financial support provided by the province	3.26	3.15	3.30
46. Over-emphasis on technology in school	0.94	0.70	0.72
47. Tendency of school system to maintain status quo	1.58	1.00	1.40
48. Ineffective leadership within your school system	1.00	1.04	1.40
49. Ineffective educational leadership within the province	2.53	2.07	2.64
50. Your degree of control over budgetary matters	1.47	0.85	1.49
51. Lack of staff turnover in your school	1.58	1.59	1.62
52. Too much staff turnover in your school	0.37	0.48	0.37
53. Existence of grade-level tests for curricular areas	1.11	0.70	0.20
54. Lack of financial support for staff professional development	2.11	1.41	1.66
55. Amount of time per day spent on core subjects	0.58	0.81	0.66

Principals rated the extent to which each factor was a constraint on this 5-point scale; 0 = not at all; 1 = somewhat important; 2 = moderately important; 3 = very important; 4 = highly important.

relation to "your degree of control over budgetary matters," the means for respondents in group 2 differed from both groups 1 (0.62) and 3 (0.64) because principals with a diploma regarded this to be a substantially more important constraint than did those in all other groups. Individuals in group 3 had a lower mean than did those in groups 1 (0.91) and 2 (0.50) for the "existence of grade-level tests for curricular areas," suggesting that respondents in group 3 considered it to be a less important constraint than did all other principals. Finally, the "lack of financial support for staff professional development" had a higher mean for group 1 than group 2 (0.70); thus, principals with a BEd considered this variable to be substantially more important than did those with a diploma.

Type of School System

There are a large number of major differences which existed among means for responses by individuals from various types of school systems, as reported in Table 8.6. Respondents were divided into four types of systems to analyze the effect of this characteristic on questionnaire results: (a) group 1: public, (b) group 2: Catholic and Protestant separate, (c) group 3: county, and (d) group 4: division.

The first variable which indicated a difference between means was "size of your school system (district, division, county)." Group 4's mean differed from means for groups 1 (1.50), 2 (1.43), and 3 (1.33). Therefore, principals who are part of a school division viewed the size factor as substantially more important than did those in other types of districts. On the contrary, individuals in group 1 or public systems proposed that the "complexity of your school system" was

Table 8.6

Means of Extent to Which Factors Were Perceived to Be Constraints on Effectiveness of Schools (Classified by Type of School System)

Factor	Mean extent as constraint			
	Public (n=65)	Catholic & Protestant Separate (n=10)	County (n=10)	Division (n=6)
34. Size of your school system	0.83	0.90	1.00	2.33
35. Complexity of your school system	1.67	1.30	1.00	1.50
36. Overall goals of your school system	0.89	0.90	0.70	1.83
37. Overall policies of your school system	1.11	1.70	1.10	1.67
38. Government legislation/regulations	1.74	1.60	1.70	2.17
39. Role of educational organizations in society	1.78	1.60	1.60	2.67
40. Routineness of procedures	1.62	1.80	1.80	1.67
41. Degree of bureaucratization	1.85	2.20	1.60	2.33
42. Composition of your staff	1.49	1.30	2.10	1.67
43. Stage in the life cycle of your school	1.31	1.40	1.80	2.17
44. Financial support provided by your system	2.63	2.40	1.50	2.83
45. Financial support provided by the province	3.35	3.00	2.80	3.33
46. Over-emphasis on technology in school	0.72	1.10	0.70	0.83
47. Tendency of school system to maintain status quo	1.20	2.30	1.00	1.50
48. Ineffective leadership within your school system	1.11	2.00	0.90	1.33
49. Ineffective educational leadership within the province	2.46	2.40	2.40	2.33
50. Your degree of control over budgetary matters	1.33	1.80	1.00	1.67
51. Lack of staff turnover in your school	1.65	2.00	1.40	0.67
52. Too much staff turnover in your school	0.40	0.30	0.80	0.00
53. Existence of grade-level tests for curricular areas	1.09	0.90	1.00	0.67
54. Lack of financial support for staff professional development	1.73	1.70	1.00	2.17
55. Amount of time per day spent on core subjects	0.77	0.50	0.60	0.33

Principals rated the extent to which each factor was a constraint on this 5-point scale; 0 = not at all; 1 = somewhat important; 2 = moderately important; 3 = very important; 4 = highly important.

substantially more important as a constraint to school effectiveness than did those in group 3 (0.67), while those in group 4 considered it to be more important (0.50) than did those in group 3. For "overall goals of the school system" respondents in group 4 regarded this aspect as a more important factor than did those in groups 1 (0.94), 2 (0.93), and 3 (1.13), since this was seen as a more important constraint to school effectiveness by principals who are in school divisions than by those in any other type of system. All groups varied from at least one other group for "overall policies of your school system" with regard to means. Group 4 principals indicated that this variable was substantially more important than did those in groups 3 (0.57) and 1 (0.56). This means that individuals in Catholic or Protestant separate systems and in school divisions saw the overall policies of the school system as a more important constraint than did those in public and county systems.

Only one difference was recorded for the importance of "government legislation/regulations;" the mean for group 4 differed substantially from the mean for group 2 (0.57), indicating that it was viewed as a more important constraint for principals in school divisions. For the "role of educational organizations in society," the mean for respondents in group 4 differed substantially from means for all other groups, i.e., group 1 (0.89), group 2 (1.07), and group 3 (1.07); this variable was considered by principals in school divisions as a substantially more important constraint on school effectiveness than by principals in other types of systems. Means for the "degree of bureaucracy" only had a substantial difference between means for groups 4 and 3 (0.73); once again respondents in the school

divisions reported that this was a more important constraint than did those in other groups. Conversely, individuals in group 3 viewed "composition of staff (skill, knowledge, experience)" to be substantially more important as a constraint than did those in groups 1 (0.61) and 2 (0.80). Similarly, the "stage in the life cycle of your school (start-up, established, declining)" reflected a higher mean for principals in school divisions than for those in public (1.31) or Catholic and Protestant separate systems. Principals in the county systems had the lowest mean for "financial support provided by your system" in comparison with other means, reflecting a difference of (1.13) for group 1, (0.90) for group 2, and (1.33) for group 4. There was only one substantial difference for "financial support provided by the province," which existed between groups 1 and 3 (0.55); thus, individuals in public systems considered this variable to be a substantially more important constraint than did those in county systems.

A wide range of differences occurred for the "tendency of the school system to maintain the status quo." A difference existed between group 2 respondents and those in groups 1 (1.10), 3 (1.30), and 4 (0.80); thus principals in Catholic and Protestant separate systems reported that this variable was substantially more important as a constraint on school effectiveness than did principals in all other groups. The variable "ineffective leadership within your school system" had various notable relationships as well; the mean for the principals in the Catholic and Protestant separate systems was substantially higher than the means for individuals in groups 1 (0.89), 2 (1.10), and 3 (0.67). For the principal's "degree of control over budgetary matters," group 3 had a lower mean than did groups 4

(0.67) and 2 (0.80); therefore, principals in county systems saw this variable as a substantially less important constraint on school effectiveness than did all other groups of respondents. A large number of differences existed among groups for the variable "lack of staff turnover." Individuals in group 2 (i.e., Catholic and Protestant separate principals) had a mean that was substantially higher than means for groups 3 (0.60) and 4 (1.33). In addition, the mean for group 4 was substantially lower than the means for groups 3 (0.73) and 1 (0.98).

Furthermore, principals in school divisions indicated that the "lack of staff turnover in the school" was substantially less important as a constraint than did those in groups 1, 2, and 3, while individuals in group 2 suggested that it was substantially more important than did those in group 3. For "too much staff turnover in your school," the principals in county systems considered this variable to be substantially more important than did those in school divisions (0.80) and those in Catholic and Protestant separate systems (0.50). Finally, there were several substantial differences among all groups for "lack of financial support for staff professional development." First, the mean for group 4 principals was substantially higher than that for group 3 (1.17); moreover, group 3's mean was lower than means for groups 1 (0.73) and 2 (0.70). Thus, principals in county systems viewed this variable to be substantially less important as a constraint than did all other groups of respondents.

Type of Community in Which the School Is Located

Respondents were divided into three groups based on the type of community where their school was located: (a) group 1: a large urban

community, (b) group 2: a small urban setting, and (c) group 3: a rural setting. As noted in Table 8.7 there were three relationships which reflect substantial differences among means for groups of respondents.

The principals in a rural setting considered the "composition of your staff (skill, knowledge, experience)" to be a substantially more important variable than did principals in a small urban setting. With regard to the "tendency of school systems to maintain the status quo," means for respondents from small urban settings were substantially less than the means for respondents in rural (0.97) and large urban settings (0.68). As well, means for principals in small urban settings were substantially less than those for large urban settings (0.54).

Table 8.7

Means of Extent to Which Factors Were Perceived to Be Constraints on Effectiveness of Schools (Classified by Type of Community in Which School is Located)

	Factor	Mean extent as constraint		
		Large Urban (n=62)	Small Urban (n=18)	Rural (n=13)
34.	Size of your school system	0.90	0.89	1.15
35.	Complexity of your school system	1.27	1.00	0.85
36.	Overall goals of your school system	0.87	0.94	1.08
37.	Overall policies of your school system	1.19	1.22	0.85
38.	Government legislation/regulations	1.75	1.89	1.46
39.	Role of educational organizations in society	1.75	1.83	1.92
40.	Routineness of procedures	1.65	1.56	1.62
41.	Degree of bureaucratization	1.94	1.78	1.77
42.	Composition of your staff	1.50	1.22	1.77
43.	Stage in the life cycle of your school	1.32	1.44	1.69
44.	Financial support provided by your system	2.60	2.17	2.31
45.	Financial support provided by the province	3.29	3.17	3.23
46.	Over-emphasis on technology in school	0.83	0.61	0.58
47.	Tendency of school system to maintain status quo	1.40	0.72	1.69
48.	Ineffective leadership within your school system	1.32	0.78	1.23
49.	Ineffective educational leadership within the province	2.40	2.72	2.33
50.	Your degree of control over budgetary matters	1.33	1.22	1.31
51.	Lack of staff turnover in your school	1.70	1.28	1.46
52.	Too much staff turnover in your school	0.39	0.22	0.69
53.	Existence of grade-level tests for curricular areas	1.18	0.72	0.77
54.	Lack of financial support for staff professional development	1.68	1.83	1.38
55.	Amount of time per day spent on core subjects	0.71	0.72	0.46

Principals rated the extent to which each factor was a constraint on this 5-point scale; 0 = not at all; 1 = somewhat important; 2 = moderately important; 3 = very important; 4 = highly important.

Number of Students Enrolled in the School

As outlined in Table 8.8, respondents were divided into 3 groups according to the number of students enrolled in the school: (a) group 1: less than 300, (b) group 2: 300-499, and (c) group 3: 500 or more. There were five factors which had substantial differences among groups.

In relation to "composition of your staff (skill, knowledge, experience)," the mean for group 2 principals was substantially higher (0.65) than that of group 1 principals; therefore it was considered to be a substantially more important constraint by principals in schools of 300-499 students than by those in other groups. With regard to the "stage in the life cycle of your school (start-up, established, declining)," the group 3 mean was substantially lower than the mean for groups 1 (1.3) and 2 (0.61) and the mean of group 2 principals was substantially lower (0.69) than the mean for group 1 principals as well; consequently, individuals in schools with 500 or more students reported this variable to be less of a constraint to school effectiveness than did those in the other two groups. Responses to the "over-emphasis on technology" resulted in a substantial difference between means for groups 3 and 2 (0.52) indicating that principals of schools with 300-499 students viewed it as a substantially more important constraint than did other principals. The "lack of staff turnover in your school" was regarded by group 2 respondents as a substantially more important constraint than by respondents in groups 1 (0.62) and 3 (0.79). Finally, principals of schools with 300-499 students proposed that the "lack of financial support for staff professional development" was substantially more important as a constraint

Table 8.8

Means of Extent to Which Factors Were Perceived to Be Constraints on Effectiveness of Schools (Classified by Number of Students Enrolled in the School)

Factor	Mean extent as constraint		
	Less than 300 (n=21)	300-499 (n=40)	500 or more (n=33)
34. Size of your school system	1.05	0.90	0.90
35. Complexity of your school system	1.10	1.15	1.21
36. Overall goals of your school system	1.00	0.88	0.91
37. Overall policies of your school system	1.33	1.00	1.21
38. Government legislation/regulations	1.57	1.75	1.82
39. Role of educational organizations in society	2.00	1.68	1.78
40. Routineness of procedures	1.48	1.80	1.52
41. Degree of bureaucratization	1.71	2.13	1.70
42. Composition of your staff	1.10	1.75	1.39
43. Stage in the life cycle of your school	2.14	1.45	0.84
44. Financial support provided by your system	2.38	2.53	2.47
45. Financial support provided by the province	3.19	3.33	3.22
46. Over-emphasis on technology in school	0.81	0.97	0.45
47. Tendency of school system to maintain status quo	1.57	1.35	1.09
48. Ineffective leadership within your school system	1.38	1.21	1.09
49. Ineffective educational leadership within the province	2.45	2.40	2.52
50. Your degree of control over budgetary matters	1.33	1.40	1.18
51. Lack of staff turnover in your school	1.38	2.00	1.21
52. Too much staff turnover in your school	0.43	0.43	0.34
53. Existence of grade-level tests for curricular areas	0.95	1.13	0.97
54. Lack of financial support for staff professional development	1.19	1.88	1.73
55. Amount of time per day spent on core subjects	0.55	0.70	0.73

Principals rated the extent to which each factor was a constraint on this 5-point scale; 0 = not at all; 1 = somewhat important; 2 = moderately important; 3 = very important; 4 = highly 165 important.

than did those in groups 1 (0.69) and 3 (0.54).

Summary

Comparisons of means for factors related to school effectiveness were made based on eight characteristics of questionnaire respondents; differences of at least 0.50 between group means were considered to be "substantial." Comments added to the questionnaire and information gained during interviews were used to provide illustrations of questionnaire results.

Only one factor showed a substantial difference when responses were categorized by age of the principal (i.e., younger principals regarded the life cycle stage of the school as a more important constraint than did older principals).

The number of years served as a principal yielded only four factors with substantial differences. The mean for principals with fewer than three years of experience was substantially higher than those of other groups for the life cycle stage of the school; principals with ten or more years of experience had a higher mean for ineffective system leadership and inadequate provincial financial support than did other principals. Furthermore, means were substantially higher for principals with 4-9 years of experience with regard to system resistance to change than were the means of other respondents.

A larger number of factors (i.e., 10) showed substantial differences when categorized by the number of years of experience as a principal in the school. Individuals with one year of experience considered five factors to be substantially more important as constraints than did principals with more experience (i.e., government legislation, system funding, stage in the life cycle of the school,

provincial leadership, and degree of control over budget). Principals with 2-3 years of experience regarded routineness of procedure as a more constraining factor than did respondents in other groups. Two factors--staff composition and tendency to maintain the status quo--were substantially more important for individuals with 4-6 years of experience at the school than for principals in other groups. Two factors--societal role of schools and ineffective system leadership--were also more important to individuals who had served for seven or more years than they were to other respondents.

When the number of years the school had been in operation was used for grouping, eight factors showed substantial differences between group means. Principals from schools in operation for 15 or fewer years considered seven factors to be substantially less important as a constraint than did principals in older schools. The societal role of educational organizations was the only factor viewed as a substantially more important constraint for principals of schools in operation for 25 or more years than for principals in other groups.

Also, eight factors showed substantial differences between means for comparisons based on the highest degree attained by the principal. Respondents with a master's/doctoral degree perceived that four of these factors--provincial leadership, control over budget, societal role of education, and life cycle stage of the school--were more serious constraints than did individuals in other groups. Further, the mean for this group was substantially lower for only one factor (i.e., existence of curricular tests). Individuals with a bachelor's degree also considered four factors to be more important constraints than did principals with higher

degrees (i.e., government legislation, system resistance to change, professional development funding, and curricular tests).

The largest number of factors (i.e., 17) with substantial differences among groups occurred when principals were categorized by the type of school system. Two factors were viewed as more important constraints by public school principals than by those in other groups (i.e., system complexity and provincial funding). However, eight factors were considered to be more important for respondents in school divisions than for principals in other types of systems, including system size, goals, funding, and complexity. Four factors were substantially more important for Catholic/Protestant separate system principals than for individuals in other groups (i.e., system leadership, resistance to change, control over budget, and lack of staff turnover). The only factor perceived as a more important constraint for principals in county systems was excessive staff turnover.

Three factors showed substantial differences among means for groups when categorized by the type of community in which the school is located. Principals in rural systems considered two factors to be substantially more important as constraints than did respondents in other types of communities (i.e., staff composition and resistance to change), whereas individuals in large urban settings viewed ineffective system leadership as a substantially more important constraint than did other principals.

The final characteristic for comparison was the number of students enrolled in the school; five factors showed substantial differences among group means. The stage in the school's life cycle had a substantially higher mean as a

constraint for principals of small schools (i.e., less than 300 students) than for principals of larger ones. However, four other factors (including staff composition and turnover and system funding) were perceived as substantially more important constraints for principals of schools with 300-499 students than for principals in other groups.

Chapter 9

Summary, Discussion, Implications, and Conclusions

Introduction

This chapter provides a summary and discussion of the findings. In addition, implications of findings are outlined with regard to theory and practice along with general conclusions and personal reflections.

Overview of the Study

This study had three major purposes: (a) to examine the perceptions of junior high principals in Alberta with regard to constraints on school effectiveness, (b) to examine the perceptions of junior high principals in Alberta with regard to constraints on their leadership effectiveness, and (c) to explore the relationships between school effectiveness and leadership effectiveness for junior high schools in Alberta. The secondary purposes were as follows: (a) to identify possible strategies which principals use to resolve constraints on their leadership and school effectiveness, and (b) to clarify the elements of leadership and school effectiveness specific to junior high schools.

Questionnaires were distributed to all 108 principals of junior high schools in Alberta; 94 questionnaires were returned (87%). Interviews were conducted with 10 specifically selected principals to provide additional information and clarification. Responses were ranked, clustered, and compared through content and statistical analyses of data from the questionnaires and interviews.

Constraints on Leadership Effectiveness

Comparisons of percentage frequency distributions and means of

importance for variables were used to determine which factors were perceived by principals to be more important as constraints on their leadership effectiveness. Half of the respondents rated inadequate funding as "highly important." Inadequate physical facilities and space were rated as "moderately important" and are related to funding in that these constraints would be reduced with sufficient funding. Furthermore, financial constraints were listed as "highly important" by half of the interviewees, who commented that they lacked funding for adequate instructional resources, technology upgrading, support staff, integrated programs, and professional development opportunities. In describing each school goal, they identified the necessity of incorporating fund-raising strategies to implement the school action plans which were designed to meet their goals.

There is currently a great concern about the availability of adequate finances at all levels, local, provincial, and federal. As in private industry, the general economic situation has created a shortage of funds and reduction of services throughout Canada and other parts of the world. Education has faced major cutbacks at a time when international achievement comparisons demand an increased focus on excellence. The constraining effects of insufficient funding would probably be identified as strongly at all other school levels, including postsecondary institutions, if a study of this nature were to be conducted at these levels. It is interesting to speculate whether similar results would have occurred if the study was conducted five to ten years ago.

Although financial issues were not frequently identified as constraints in previous literature reviews (including Fennell, 1992; Eastcott, et al. 1974; Murphy,

1987; Mulhauser, 1982), certain research projects did report funding as a constraint (e.g., Harrison, 1987; Highett, 1989; and Pellicer, et al. 1988).

Principals in this study discussed several strategies used to attempt to resolve funding constraints, most of which are appropriate only at the junior high level. Involvement in fund-raising ventures (such as casinos and bingos) is a common strategy used at all school levels. However, these principals also established connections with private industry, community agencies, and governmental departments to meet the needs of adolescents for technological equipment, work-experience programs, career training, stay-in-school initiatives, and personal/family counselling. It is evident that the role requirements for principals have become increasingly complex in the past decade due to budget management requirements. It may be necessary to provide additional training in this area or to use financial advisors in the near future. Further, selection of principals could highlight the need for demonstrated ability in budget planning, forming business partnerships, and soliciting financial support from community sources. As Lane (1992) indicated, principals need to act as "brokers" who protect instructional supervision (through skills such as financial planning) and disseminate a self-renewing culture (through tasks such as developing close connections within the community).

Several variables related to time (i.e., dealing with staff supervision, problem students, and administrative duties) were considered as "moderately important" constraints. Interviews revealed that principals spent a major portion of their working day dealing with student misbehavior and supervision of marginal

staff members, rather than with the more positive aspects of their role. The time spent with problem students appears to be a more relevant constraint in the junior high setting than at other school levels based on conversations with colleagues and personal experience. This could be related to the changing role of the adolescent in our society; the Young Offender's Act and reduced age requirements for drinking, driving, and watching violent movies have created a different "type" of adolescent than in previous decades. Further, the large number of single-parent families and increased use of violence are two societal changes which have had a tremendous impact on young adults. There has also been a significant increase in the frequency and severity of behavioral problems which are "typical" of the adolescent stage (such as questioning of authority, involvement with illegal substances, interaction with the opposite sex, and displays of increased physical prowess); these are not frequently evidenced in elementary settings. The majority of the school goals and related action plans described by interviewees focussed on behavior improvement programs, although their ultimate purpose was the enhancement of student achievement.

These findings are consistent with those in the literature which noted similar concerns regarding the role of the principal in junior high settings. Valentine et al. (1981) concluded that the most frequently reported constraint was the time taken by apathetic parents and problem students. Pellicer et al. (1988) also acknowledged this issue by including child abuse and teen sexual activity as important external factors related to the effectiveness of the principal. Johnston and de Perez (1985) advised that the junior high student is at a transitory stage of

development which requires social and emotional guidance in order to promote the school's academic goals. This implies the need for a different organizational structure and set of behavior guidelines. Williamson and Johnston (1991) proposed that junior high schools should offer special programs and flexible scheduling to promote student independence, cooperation, emotional maturation, and personal responsibility. In addition, Wilmore (1992), Eisner (1991), and Vatterott (1991) recommended that junior high schools have a capacity for pastoral care and counselling. The Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development (1989) highlighted essentials for improving junior high schools with the advocacy of such requirements as reengaging families in the education process, connecting schools with communities, providing diverse programming, integrating occupational training, and encouraging teachers and administrators to respond to special adolescent characteristics. As outlined earlier, researchers such as Lounsbury (1990), Smith and Scott (1990), Alexander and McEwin (1989), and MacIver (1990) have stated that junior high schools require a host of reforms if they are to successfully meet the various needs of today's adolescents.

Principals in this study attempted to resolve these time constraints by allocating much of their day to resolution of student misbehavior. They involved other members of the administration team--counsellors, assistant principals, curriculum coordinators--in handling conflicts, meeting with parents or community representatives, and monitoring overall student behavior. They included staff members in the design of school programs and policies which promoted academic excellence, positive behavior, consistent attendance, and reduced tardiness.

Furthermore, some initiated special daily advisor sessions, modified academic integration programs, parenting-for-teens courses, peer-support counselling, and climate-enhancement programs to assist in preventing and resolving problematic student behavior. Such programs were designed to reduce the excessive administrative time required to deal with student misbehavior.

Another important constraint identified by respondents and interviewees was the lack of time available for other aspects of the leadership role, including time required for administrative tasks, professional growth, planning, and administering of student activities. The amount of time spent on routine matters and excessive administrative tasks was reported by questionnaire respondents to have constraining effects on their role. This finding is perhaps more relevant at the junior high setting than at either the elementary or senior high level due to the ages of the clientele involved and the varied student backgrounds in each school. It is also interesting to note that half of the interviewees commented that the overemphasis on managerial tasks reduced time for other leadership activities.

These results are supported by a review of related literature: Bennis (1990), Martin and Willower (1981), Valentine et al. (1981), Mulhauser (1986), and Pellicer et al. (1988) all concluded that time was a major determinant of leadership effectiveness. Lyons (1990) agreed that the leadership position of the principal was associated with a high degree of stress due to role conflict, the need to resolve problems, demands for efficient time management, and the high activity level.

Interviewees and questionnaire respondents reported that they addressed

these time constraints with the following strategies: (a) delegating tasks to staff committees, (b) ignoring certain requests from system or government representatives, (c) working extended hours on administrative tasks at home, (d) reducing their involvement in external committees, and (e) presenting their concerns to system supervisors. Although there are more time constraints created by behavior prob'ems at the junior high level than at other levels, these resolution strategies are possibly generic to all public school settings.

Staffing issues were also identified as prominent constraints on leadership effectiveness. Insufficient staff mobility was considered to be a "moderately important" constraint, while staff resistance to change and variations in teaching ability were viewed as "somewhat important." Many questionnaire and interview comments provided information about teachers in tenured positions who did not feel compelled to adapt to student needs, revised curricular requirements, and societal changes. Although staffing constraints are probably less relevant at the elementary levels due to the wider range of possible grade placements and the larger number of different school settings, they could be even more relevant at the senior high level due to the large size of the student population. Unfortunately, a great deal of administrative time and effort can be expended when dealing with marginal staff members; further, the negative impact upon the total school can often be extremely destructive in relation to effective school operation and goal attainment.

These results are consistent with those obtained by Mulhauser (1982), Murphy (1987), and Benveniste (1989) who reported that skills, attitudes, and

efforts extended by subordinates created a constraint on leadership effectiveness because extra guidance, support, and supervision were required. Similarly, Murphy (1987) alleged that principals require firm knowledge about curriculum and teaching strategies in order to provide appropriate instructional supervision. McNamara (1968) had also acknowledged that the length of time the individual served as principal of the school was a significant situational factor in terms of overall school effectiveness.

Respondents and interviewees frequently added comments related to inadequate staff performance. Due to the challenges involved in dealing with adolescents whose needs are constantly changing, principals in this study suggested that junior high schools required certificated, support, and custodial staff who are trained and motivated to deal with adolescents because students in this age group differ vastly from those at other age levels. They also proposed that contract issues such as certification requirements and performance standards should be revised. Many individuals in this study attempted to resolve these constraints by devoting additional time to staff supervision, goal planning, and classroom observation.

Relationships Among Demographic Variables and Constraints on Leadership Effectiveness

Differences between means of importance of constraints on leadership effectiveness were analyzed based on the following demographic variables: age, number of years served as a principal, years of experience as a principal in the school, years the school has been in operation, highest degree of the principal,

type of school system, type of community, and number of students in the school.

Younger respondents regarded time constraints as their major concern. As newly appointed principals, they were more likely to be placed in smaller, older schools; hence, severe time constraints were created by teaching part-time, spending time to become familiar with the requirements of their administrative role, and learning how to deal with problem students. Principals who were older viewed support staff performance as a more important constraint than did other respondents; interviewees in this age group suggested that they relied on support staff members to perform various administrative functions efficiently due to the large student population and varied programs available at the school.

Individuals with minimal experience in this role identified similar constraints on their effectiveness to those who were younger; as new appointees they were also often placed in smaller, older schools and they lacked a sufficient number of students to have adequate funding. Consequently, they spent more time teaching which reduced time to develop competence in administrative duties and student behavior management. Further, questionnaire respondents and interviewees observed that parents were reluctant to support inexperienced principals. Respondents with an average amount of experience were concerned about ineffective central office communication and the variations in teaching ability within their schools. Individuals with the greatest amount of experience listed the same two constraints as did principals with only one year of experience, since they spent excessive time dealing with administrative tasks and problem students. The amount of experience did not change the importance of these two

constraints.

Insufficient space for too many students was considered to be a substantially more important constraint for principals in newer schools than for others, likely due to the rapid growth that occurs in newly established communities. Interviewees also commented that unforeseen population changes in newer schools created major difficulties for staffing and scheduling. However, constraints perceived as being very important for principals of schools that had been in operation for an average period of time were related to a smaller student population. These principals also expressed concerns about staff resistance to change and mobility; due to the number of years their schools had been in operation, staff members had likely become overly comfortable and entrenched in their positions. In addition, these respondents perceived provincial requirements and insufficient planning time as constraints, perhaps in relation to difficulties they faced implementing appropriate change. Based on a comparison of means, four constraints were considered more important by principals from the oldest schools than by others; inadequate funding and physical facilities, insufficient opportunity to select staff, and time spent on student misbehavior are issues more commonly experienced in older schools with a small student population and few features that attract new staff.

Principals with a bachelor's degree as their highest qualification viewed inadequate funding and insufficient time for staff supervision as substantially more important constraints than did others. However, individuals with postgraduate degrees perceived to a greater extent that they had insufficient time for

administrative tasks and planning; they also listed lack of parental support and variations in teaching ability as substantially more important constraints. Unlike respondents with a bachelor's degree as their highest qualification, they were generally confident about their staff supervision knowledge and skills, although marginal staff still posed a constraint. Interviewees with a diploma or a master's/doctoral degree agreed that their additional knowledge and university training resulted in a more comprehensive view of their administrative role requirements and a clearer vision of the essentials of school effectiveness.

In comparing the type of district, principals from school divisions indicated that insufficient physical facilities created a constraint to the effectiveness of their schools; the tax base is not usually as large in rural areas as in urban centres so funding for facilities is minimal. They also reported a lack of adequate support from the system supervisor, perhaps due to the diversity of role requirements held by supervisors in small school systems. Insufficient time for completing administrative tasks and planning was also a concern noted by these principals. No factors were viewed by principals in public systems as being substantially more important constraints, but they listed several factors as being substantially less important than did principals in other types of systems, including system policies, teaching load, time for administrative duties, and community pressures. As the type of system with the largest student population, principals in public schools often have more input into provincial decisions and receive larger budgets due to the increased size of the tax base. Interviewees in public schools reported that they had a fair degree of autonomy with regard to program and staffing issues.

The largest discrepancy between responses was discovered for principals in county schools who viewed several variables as more critical constraints than did other principals. They perceived that they lacked the opportunity to select staff, which is a constraint related to the centralization of staffing decisions in county systems. They also indicated that having too many students reduced time for supervising staff and for administering student activities. In larger systems, the student population can be distributed among several school locations, whereas in a county school all students in the registration area must be accommodated. Due to the closeness between the community and the school, county principals reported additional pressures and lack of parental support as constraints. Interviewees in county schools commented that community pressures from trustees were often based on personal biases rather than sound educational rationale. Several reported that parents left the entire educational process to the school rather than providing additional support.

Principals in Catholic and Protestant separate schools proposed that ineffective central office communication and overall staff performance were important constraints. Interviewees also suggested that staff members were resistant to change due to the traditional nature of the separate school in society.

Few substantial differences were identified based on community location. Principals in small urban school communities viewed provincial requirements, sufficient administrative time, and resistance to change by staff as substantially more important constraints on their effectiveness than did other groups of respondents.

Some noteworthy relationships resulted from comparing responses based on the size of the school. Principals in small schools found several variables to be more serious constraints. Due to the low student population, they had a teaching load which reduced time for professional growth and development of parental support. They also perceived that central office communication was ineffective, perhaps because they had less time to attend meetings and communicate with central office staff than did principals in larger schools. Interviewees commented that principals with a teaching role face extreme time constraints. Staffing issues such as mobility, selection, performance, and resistance to change were considered to be more crucial constraints on principals with an average-sized population than on others. Although respondents also listed inadequate physical facilities as an important constraint, interviewees with an average-sized population did not identify this as a concern. Principals in large schools logically regarded insufficient space and too many students as more important constraints; interviewees substantiated these issues stating that they lacked adequate space for the larger classes and special complementary programs.

Constraints on School Effectiveness

The factors identified as the two most important constraints on junior high school effectiveness were the financial support provided by the province and that provided by the school system. As outlined earlier, interviewees substantiated this concern about inadequate funding. Since funding is directly related to the availability of resources, services, equipment, and supplies, the extreme importance of this factor cannot be overstated. Questionnaire respondents and

interviewees added comments to reinforce this concern, indicating that reduced provincial and capital budgets created constraints such as insufficient technological equipment, delayed physical plant upgrading, and an inadequate number of staff members for special programs. Funding concerns are probably more relevant at the junior high and senior high levels than at the elementary level due to the cost of equipment for complementary programs (e.g., career and technology studies, computer studies), the larger population size, the increased need for counselling, and the cost of resources (e.g., texts, learning resources materials). Generally, individuals with minimal experience as a principal, no graduate degree, and older public school settings considered inadequate funds to be more important than did other respondents. Overall, the degree of control over budget ranked as somewhat important, which would indicate that principals generally are not as concerned about controlling their own finances as they are about the allocation available to educational institutions. As indicated previously, this finding was substantiated in the research conducted by Harrison (1987), Highett (1989), and Pellicer et al. (1988). Resolution strategies for funding constraints were also outlined earlier.

The third most important constraint was ineffective provincial educational leadership. This could be connected to the lack of adequate funding in that provincial leaders determine educational grants. Several interviewees discussed provincial directives and policies, suggesting that leaders had "lost touch with reality" in schools today; some principals resolved this constraint by ignoring certain provincial government directives and following their own system or school

prerogatives.

Renihan and Renihan (1984) also concluded that ineffective leadership at all levels of educational organizations contributed to reduced school effectiveness. They referred to this constraint as power games and territorialism, or the competitive philosophy which separates stakeholders into various camps. Harrison (1987) outlined similar factors in his list of nine generic contingencies which were considered as types of constraints; he included the degree of bureaucratization and the institutional setting in this list. He referred to overall purpose as one prominent type of constraint which is dictated by system priorities and guidelines, provincial legislation, and school policies. Likewise, Goodlad (1990) noted that lack of clarity about mission, directives, and identity created constraints on school effectiveness. Murphy (1987) highlighted a wide range of barriers which were also identified in this study (including district expectations, organizational size, overall purpose, and degree of bureaucratization). Like all organizations, factors of this nature reduce the effectiveness of goal orientation and attainment.

Relationships Among Demographic Variables and Constraints on School Effectiveness

Only one school effectiveness constraint showed a substantial difference for categories based on the age of the principal: the stage in the life cycle of the school was viewed as a more important constraint for younger principals (i.e., 45 or younger) than for those in older age groups. Individuals with minimal experience as a principal (i.e., less than three years) indicated that provincial

financial support and ineffective system leadership were substantially less important constraints but they also reported that the stage in the life cycle of the school was a more important constraint than did more experienced individuals. Young, newly appointed principals are often placed in small, more established schools with dwindling student populations, so they face different types of constraints. Interviewees also commented on the problems inherent in restructuring programs in an older school where funding was minimal and resistance to change was substantial.

Individuals with extensive experience as a principal in the school (i.e., seven or more years) viewed variables external to the daily operation of the school (i.e., the role of schools in society, life cycle stage of the school, and system leadership) as being substantially more important constraints on school effectiveness than did those in other groups. Respondents who had served a minimal number of years viewed government legislation, system financial support, and routineness of procedures to be more important constraints than did other respondents; however, they considered the overemphasis on technology to be a substantially less important constraint. Newly appointed principals are often more eager to initiate new ideas and procedural changes than are the more experienced individuals who have a broader perspective of school effectiveness. Further, they are more familiar with technology and its importance for the future while more experienced individuals often lack formal training in this area. Interviewees commented about having insufficient funds to purchase computer equipment and software, especially in small, older schools where newly appointed principals are

often placed.

A large number of substantial differences occurred based on the age of the school. Principals of newer schools considered several variables to be less important as constraints on school effectiveness than did respondents in older schools. They were less concerned about the financial support provided because newer schools benefit from capital grants for construction and purchase of equipment. Principals interviewed in older schools substantiated the concern about funding because they lacked sufficient resources to upgrade their facilities, provide adequate technological programs, or purchase required resources. Further, interviewees in newer schools did not confront the issue of inadequate staff turnover because they had attracted energetic, skilled staff members. The size and goals of the school system were also not perceived as constraints in newer schools; in order to be selected as administrators for newer schools, individuals are chosen in relation to their support for overall system directives and goals. Interviewees did not substantiate these findings, perhaps because they were at schools that had been in operation for 16-24 years and generally supported the policies of their respective districts.

Results based on the highest qualification earned by the principal yielded interesting comparisons; respondents with a bachelor's degree considered government legislation and curricular tests, resistance to change, and lack of professional development funding to be substantially more important as constraints on school effectiveness than did other respondents. Individuals who wanted additional training in administration lacked financial support for

sabbaticals. Principals with postgraduate diplomas listed the stage in the life cycle of the school, control over budget, and the role of educational organizations in society as substantially more important constraints on school effectiveness than did those in other groups. This latter finding was reinforced by interviewees who wanted to control budgetary decisions and who viewed the role of education in today's society as a constraint.

The type of school system had the greatest number of substantial differences between responses for various groups. Principals in school divisions considered several variables related to the school system (i.e., size, goals, and bureaucratic nature) to be substantially more important than did individuals in other groups. Further, government legislation, the role of schools in society, and staff turnover were also perceived as substantially important constraints. Since school divisions tend to be more remote and to have a small number of schools spread over a wide geographic area, it is logical that the major constraints identified by these principals would be different from those in larger, more densely populated areas. Respondents in county schools considered system complexity and financial support and school staff composition and turnover to be substantially more important constraints than did those in other types of systems. Principals in public systems were also concerned about the complexity of the system, but identified provincial rather than system funding as the important constraint. Interview comments generally substantiated concerns about system bureaucracy and complexity, regardless of the type of system. Individuals in Catholic and Protestant separate systems perceived that system variables (i.e.,

policies, leadership, and tendency to maintain the status quo) were substantially more important constraints. There could be a more traditional orientation in systems where other factors--such as religion--dictate policies.

In relation to the type of community in which the school is located, there were two noteworthy relationships; principals in small, urban settings viewed the composition of the staff and tendency of the system to maintain the status quo as more substantial constraints than did individuals in other types of systems. Staff members in these schools often reside in the local community and are reluctant to implement new strategies or transfer to alternate locations. However, respondents in large, urban communities proposed that ineffective system leadership was substantially more important as a constraint. Interviewees in these communities indicated that system leaders often impose too many changes too quickly.

Principals in average-sized schools (i.e., 300-499 students) regarded staff composition and lack of staff turnover as substantially more important variables than did other principals; schools of this size often have a stable student population which necessitates few staff changes. They also perceived that the lack of professional development funds and overemphasis on technology were more important constraints. This latter factor may be related to concerns about understanding technology because additional training could reinforce the importance of this program at the junior high level. Interviewees reiterated these concerns about staffing since several were at average-sized schools. Individuals in small schools considered the stage in the life cycle of the school to be a substantially more important constraint to school effectiveness than did principals

in larger schools because small schools are usually located in older communities with dwindling student populations and often have limited funding.

Leadership Effectiveness and School Effectiveness

Four major conclusions were obtained regarding constraints on leadership effectiveness and school effectiveness:

1. Inadequate financial support from local and provincial sources was a major constraint on both leadership and school effectiveness.

2. Time constraints for such tasks as dealing with problem students or supervising staff were considered to be very important constraints on leadership effectiveness.

3. Ineffective provincial leadership was considered to be a very important constraint on school effectiveness.

4. A direct relationship exists between the effectiveness of the school leader and that of the school itself.

These conclusions were supported by information derived from the analyses of questionnaire and interview data.

Funding constraints tended to impede principals in this study from activating plans for successful goal attainment in their schools and from enhancing their personal performance as leaders. Many individuals attempted to overcome this barrier by acquiring financial support and services from external sources and community agencies. Funding reductions will probably continue for the next few years so principals will need to be creative in their resolution of this constraint. Regarding this conclusion, there was little previous research which substantiated

the importance of this factor with the exception of projects conducted by Highett (1989), Harrison (1987), and Pellicer et al. (1988) whose findings supported the connection between principal and school effectiveness in relation to funding constraints.

Many of the constraints on principal effectiveness focussed on time-management issues; excessive amounts of time were required to deal with student misbehavior, staff supervision, and central office administrative duties. Working with problem adolescents presented a critical time constraint for respondents, which is logical in relation to the characteristics of the adolescent population and current societal issues. Junior high schools have evolved over the past few decades in response to the unique characteristics of adolescents which necessitate extensive amounts of time from principals if school and societal goals are to be attained. Once again, principals worked with staff members to design a host of successful strategies aimed at improving student behavior and preventing excessive time spent dealing with problem students including attendance programs, advisor sessions, and reinforcement schemes for positive behavior. The significance of time constraints on leadership effectiveness was acknowledged by a number of previous studies, such as those reported by Kouzes and Posner (1990) and McEvoy (1987) who identified productivity and efficiency as essential leadership capabilities. Other researchers, including Valentine et al. (1981), Mulhauser (1982), and Martin and Willower (1981), also proposed that time spent handling problems with various stakeholder representatives created a major constraint on the effectiveness of the leader.

The importance of provincial leadership as a determinant of overall school effectiveness is related to various regulations regarding integration of special needs students, curricular testing requirements, approval of instructional resources, and training and certification of staff. Leaders at the provincial level affect all of these educational matters through their policy-making powers; hence, they are perceived as being responsible for constraints of this nature. Principals in this study said that they resolved this lack of effective provincial leadership by devising school-based programs which focussed on the specific needs of their students, the socioeconomic needs of their community, and the skill requirements of their staff members. This third conclusion confirms the results of studies such as those conducted by Renihan and Renihan (1984) and Murphy (1987) who indicated that lack of skilled leadership at all levels of the organization could result in reduced effectiveness. In addition, Harrison (1987) suggested that the degree of bureaucratization could be an important constraint on school effectiveness. In fact, Johnston and de Perez (1985), who conducted research on junior high school evolution, recommended that effective leadership was primarily based on a combination of the essential human, technical, and management skills.

Numerous previous studies acknowledged the strong relationship between school effectiveness and leadership effectiveness (e.g., Cuban, 1984; Purkey and Smith, 1983; and Sroypan, 1988). This relationship reinforces the extreme importance of the principal in the overall success of school operation. Principals in this study considered that their effectiveness as educational leaders was closely associated with that of their schools. They believed their role was to serve as

leaders for students, staff members, parents, district personnel, and community representatives for the purpose of coordinating successful school operation and goal attainment, rather than enhancement of their own careers.

Implications

Several key implications of this study are outlined in relation to theory and research and practice. Furthermore, implications for potential future use and verification of the theoretical framework are described.

Theory and Research

This study focussed specifically on junior high schools and provided information regarding the perceptions of principals about constraints on leadership effectiveness and school effectiveness. Further investigation could be conducted to survey other individuals at the junior high level, including teachers, parents, central office personnel, and non-parent community members. Similarly, a longitudinal study designed to compare perceptions over a number of years would be valuable, especially in relation to the conclusions about the adequacy of funding, the variety of changes in the socioeconomic aspects of our culture, and the changing role of adolescents in society. Another noteworthy area of comparison could occur if similar studies were to be conducted with junior high principals in other provinces of Canada. The effects of cultural, economic, political, and social differences among provinces would furnish beneficial comparisons and perhaps varied conclusions.

Furthermore, it may be worthwhile to investigate various grade configurations in order to determine the most appropriate organizational format

for adolescents, increase the effectiveness of the junior high setting, and reduce the negative impact of constraining factors identified in this study. Reproducing a study of this nature in schools with grades K-9 or 6-8 may yield beneficial comparisons and data which could be used to determine whether the change in student age grouping would sufficiently change the perceptions of principals about the relative impact of different constraints. In addition, it would be beneficial to expand this study to include elementary and senior high schools.

Practice

The knowledge gained from this study can be used to enhance the effectiveness of junior high schools and their leaders because several of the constraints inherent in this setting are identified and practical resolution strategies are proposed. Principals can use their knowledge of constraints to identify potential problem areas when designing school goals, action plans, and budget proposals. Learning to be a reflective practitioner would enhance one's leadership skills which may reduce the negative impact of constraints. Furthermore, conclusions from this research could form the foundation for initiating change at the provincial level, as well as locally. Using the information related to perceptions of junior high principals about funding, provincial leadership, and staffing policies, Alberta Education representatives could identify areas in need of review.

More specifically, the findings related to constraints created by inadequate financial support and ineffective educational leadership at the provincial level could be used, for example, as the stimulus for expanded inter-agency cooperation

with such provincial departments as Family and Social Services, thereby increasing the funds available to school systems. In addition, results of this study could promote the involvement of private industry in the sponsorship of various programs (e.g., work experience), which would also assist in resolving funding constraints at the junior high level.

With regard to the constraining effect of student misbehavior, the resolutions suggested by respondents were ideas that could be applied by practitioners; these include development of school discipline policies, greater use of school staff in resolving and preventing misbehavior, increased use of community agencies, and establishment of more stringent district policies for expulsion and suspension of students. Furthermore, restructured pre-service and in-service programs may provide adequate training in constraint identification and resolution for junior high principals. As Sizer (1989) cautioned, there is no blueprint for the model junior high school; however, reflective analysis of current practices could result in directives for reform.

The third most important constraint was found to be inadequate physical facilities; once again there are a number of potential implications for related action. This finding could indicate to provincial departments and local school authorities that various school plants should be upgraded to meet current standards or perhaps closed to avoid use of excess funds for renovation. Economic constraints form a major barrier to facility renovation but some redistribution of funds should be examined. To illustrate, funds currently used to supply lawyers for young offenders could be allocated to schools for the upgrading

of technology labs and provision of career and lifeskills programs which could reduce criminal action by adolescents.

This study also concluded that lack of time for staff supervision was a moderately important constraint on leadership effectiveness. Principals of junior high schools could use this information to revise their staff supervision procedures or could involve other school personnel (such as curriculum coordinators) in the supervision process, thus reducing their time commitment. With regard to the lack of staff mobility, it may be expedient for districts to adopt different policies in order to facilitate staff mobility within the district, such as providing the option of one-year exchange positions for staff who are reluctant to transfer or establishing maximum time periods for tenure at a particular school setting. Principals and district personnel could strongly encourage teachers to view transferring schools or moving to different divisions as a positive opportunity for increased professional growth.

Furthermore, this study indicated that the amount of time required for administrative tasks was a "moderately important" constraint on leadership effectiveness, which could suggest the need for various modifications by central office personnel and district political representatives. Reduction of requirements for meetings, reports, and other central office duties could allow additional time for school-related responsibilities. In addition, junior high principals may need to adapt their leadership styles to allow more time for administrative duties or to include methods of maximizing their efficiency when dealing with staff and students. The application of a more proactive than reactive focus on goals could

prevent principals from being overwhelmed by organizational demands.

Several implications relate to constraints on school effectiveness in the junior high setting. Similar conclusions to those noted earlier can be drawn in relation to resolving the inadequacy of funding, which was also perceived to be the most important constraint on school effectiveness. The unique characteristics of adolescents may necessitate additional grants at the junior high level to provide support personnel, such as resident police resource officers and community liaison workers. It might also be important for principals to have a greater degree of autonomy in the daily operation of their schools. Although most junior high principals are currently trained in the secondary route, it could be advantageous to have pre-service programs designed specifically for this level, thus allowing potential administrators to acquire the essential training in time management, student behavior improvement, and staff supervision at the junior high level.

Also, research could be conducted regarding the grade structure at the junior high level to determine if it is the most beneficial form of organization. The Edmonton Public School District and schools in Manitoba are moving to separate K-8 and 9-12 grade groups as a potential remedy for some of the unique constraints faced in current 7-9 settings and the expensive facility construction costs. Resolving student behavior problems may be less constraining if the student population had a wider age range.

Theoretical Framework

The questionnaire and interview analysis of this study supported the appropriateness of the proposed theoretical framework (Figure 2.1). Principals

used their "antecedents" (i.e., personal philosophy, values, knowledge, and system philosophy) in conjunction with "theories of practice" (i.e., perceptions of effective leadership and school operation) as the background for action in their daily "professional practice events." They were aware of the basic characteristics of effective schools and effective leadership so they had a vision of how their school should function for optimum benefit. They reflected on constraints (e.g., insufficient funding, and inappropriate leadership) as they interacted with students, staff, parents, district representatives, and community members to perform their role as a junior high principal. Individuals then decided upon appropriate actions to resolve these constraints (e.g., behavior improvement programs and fundraising ventures). Subsequently, they analyzed the consequences of these decisions in relation to their original "intentions" (plus their "antecedents" and "theories of knowledge"), thus developing skill in "reflective practice" which allowed them to identify resolutions or changes required to deal expediently with constraints and prevent further reduction of effectiveness. The enhanced knowledge, values, abilities, and philosophy would then form the "antecedents" for future "professional practice events." All elements of the theoretical framework were shown to be valid for junior high principals in this study so no revisions were deemed necessary. Specifically, the four categories of constraints (i.e., organizational, individual, societal, and resources) were found to accurately represent those that principals contended with on a daily basis in their junior high settings; resources and societal issues related to student behavior proved to be of greater importance than other types of constraints.

In conclusion, this study highlighted the significance of identifying and resolving constraints as part of the process of restructuring junior high schools and the value of reflecting on daily leadership practice to enhance school and leadership effectiveness. As Drucker (1992) pointed out, the need to provide "information up" and to "walk outside" is a critical process for educational reform and analysis of societal trends. The elements of the theoretical framework provided a worthy point of reference for analysis of data from the literature review and daily operation of principals in this study. Advanced knowledge of potential constraints on effectiveness in the junior high setting is beneficial in that principals can incorporate resolution strategies into their action plans, thereby reducing the negative impact of various factors on their leadership and overall school effectiveness.

Conclusions and Personal Reflections

A great deal of research has been conducted on leadership and school effectiveness in various school settings; hence, practitioners and theorists are aware of the essential ingredients for success on both levels. However, full implementation of strategies for leadership and school effectiveness has yet to be accomplished due to the current constraints inherent in our junior high schools. This study has highlighted the essence of these constraints and the merit of constraint analysis in exploring school restructuring and leadership enhancement.

With regard to leadership effectiveness at the junior high level, funding and time management were major constraints identified in this study, either at the system level resulting from inadequate allocations and excessive bureaucratic

requirements or at the school level caused by extensive amounts of time spent with disruptive adolescents and supervision of marginal staff. Societal demands and questionable provincial leadership have created constraints upon effective junior high school operation at a time in history when the quality of education is paramount if we are to remedy the current economic and social problems.

Several major constraints on school effectiveness have been identified which typify our current societal malaise and are specifically related to education for adolescents, including reduced funding for education, increased incidence of disruptive adolescent behavior, and changing sociological patterns. Although the value of adequate funding cannot be overstated, it is worthwhile to note the importance of this factor in the minds of principals throughout the province, at a time when many private and public organizations face financial uncertainty.

Principals in this study attempted to reduce the effects of constraints by involving staff in the design of school programs which address such concerns as student behavior, by initiating fund-raising ventures, by networking with external organizations, and by incorporating federal or provincial funds for special programs. Increased use of reflective practice should facilitate early identification and resolution of constraints. Generally, constraints identified in this study were issue-specific rather than pervasive or generic, which is an important distinction in the identification and resolution process. It is essential that principals focus on specific issues, but they also must never lose sight of the overall purposes and goals. Junior high principals may also increase the decentralization of their role by training other school staff members to deal with duties such as instructional

supervision, student behavior management, and public relations. In addition, they may involve parent and community agencies in lobbying for increased funding or raising additional monies. Development of efficient time-management strategies would be a potential focus for professional development sessions for junior high principals. Allocating less time to student misbehavior would allow additional time for developing interagency cooperation; however, it may also necessitate stricter school and district student behavior policies. Junior high principals may need to intensify their networking skills, political representation, and involvement with district or provincial advisory committees in order to communicate concerns about constraints. Based on Bredeson's (1985) metaphors of the principal's role, we are currently in the "survival stage" but we may need to move to the "vision stage" because the negative impact of constraints has become increasingly evident. School principals need to be dynamic, creative, and skilled in order to resolve constraints. As Sagor (1992) and Mitchell and Tucker (1992) proposed, there is a need for transformational leadership. It may be worthwhile to develop a more extensive selection and principal training program which focusses on skills of constraint identification and resolution.

Specific respondent characteristics appeared to be more related to identification of constraints. With regard to constraints on principal effectiveness, the number of years of experience as a principal in the school created substantial differences in relation to the importance of various factors; individuals with more experience viewed constraints in quite a different manner than did those with minimal experience. Further, the number of years the school had been in

operation was associated with major differences; principals of schools in operation for fewer years found different factors to be important than did individuals in schools that had been in operation for a longer period of time. These facts could provide implications for placement and promotion policies for leadership staff in each district.

The type of school system also was an important determinant in identifying different opinions; the greatest degree of disparity was noted between large public systems and small county or division systems because principals of public systems viewed few factors as serious constraints. Each type of system needs to address different concerns and focus on those more appropriate to their needs. Similarly, the size of the school created disparities in that small school principals faced a number of constraints unlike those with a large student population. This could influence district policies regarding school consolidation and design.

With regard to school effectiveness, four characteristics highlighted major differences in responses. As noted previously, a large number of differences were obtained between responses of principals in schools in public districts and divisions. Furthermore, principals in older schools viewed more factors as constraints than did those in newer schools, which could indicate the necessity of different funding formulas or mutual support networks for principals. Perceptions of individuals with a bachelor's degree differed from those of respondents who had more training; this suggests the need for varied in-service programs or professional development opportunities. Similarly, principals with less experience in the school viewed a larger number of factors as constraints than did those with

more experience; a mentoring system, networking, and additional support from system supervisors could resolve constraints of this nature and assist in easing transition of principals to different schools. These comparisons highlight the necessity for future research in this area.

In analyzing the significance of various characteristics and constraints, one cannot rule out the necessity of determining the principal's degree of control over various personal and school characteristics, since it has a considerable effect on the successful resolution of constraints and attainment of goals. Certain characteristics--such as age of the school and number of years of administrative experience--cannot be altered, while others--such as number of students and amount of administrative training--can be. Similarly, certain constraints--such as funding allocations and provincial testing requirements--are not within the principals' span of control, whereas other constraints--such as time spent with problem students and staff composition--can be altered with appropriate actions. As part of reflective practice, junior high principals should assess the degree of control they have over various aspects of their role and school operation in order to direct their efforts toward the aspects over which they have the greatest degree of control. This process would likely enhance the effectiveness of both schools and principals. Some perceived constraints should more appropriately be viewed as "challenges," thereby removing the impression that constraints should always be viewed negatively.

The focus of this study was the critical examination of the essence of constraints on the continuous growth in the effectiveness of junior high schools

and their principals. The relationship between principal effectiveness and school effectiveness is a gestalt phenomenon which highlights the synergistic elements of the school setting in the promotion of positive change. Encouraging practitioners and theorists to focus on the central issue of constraint identification, analysis, and resolution is a significant key to productive junior high school renewal and restructuring. This study should convince readers that far too little information has been imparted regarding the necessity to triumph beyond one's own perceptions of constraints inherent in each situation. Functioning as a reflective educator who critically analyzes and resolves these constraints has become a requisite in our profession. When constraint identification and resolution becomes the litmus test for leadership and school improvement, education at the junior high level should be increasingly progressive and productive.

Bibliography

Alexander, W. M. (1988). Schools in the middle: Rhetoric and reality. *Social Education, 2,* 107-109.

Alexander, W. M., & George, P. S. (1981). *The exemplary middle school.* New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston.

Alexander, W. M., & McEwin, C. K. (1989). Schools in the middle: Progress 1968-1988. *NASSP - Schools in the Middle*, September, 1-8.

Bartley, S. H. (1980). *Introduction to perception.* New York: Harper and Row.

Baskett, S., & Miklos, E. (1992). Perspectives of effective principals. *The Canadian Administrator, 32*(1), 1-12.

Bennis, W. (1990). *Why leaders can't lead.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Benveniste, G. (1989). *Mastering the politics of planning.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Blum, R. E. (1985). *Effective schools practices: A research synthesis.* Portland, OR: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory.

Blumberg, A. (1989). *School administration as a craft: Foundations of practice.* Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Blumberg, A., & Greenfield, W. (1980). *The effective principal: Perspectives on school leadership.* Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Boyan, N. J. (1988). Describing and explaining administrative behavior. In N. J. Boyan (Ed.), *Handbook of research on educational administration* (pp. 77-97). New York: Longman.

Boyer, E. (1988). The new agenda for the nation's schools. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 24*(3), 317-322.

Brandt, R. (1992). On rethinking leadership: A conversation with Tom Sergiovanni. *Educational Leadership, 49*(5), 46-49.

Bredeson, P. V. (1985). An analysis of the metaphorical perspectives of school principals. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 21*(1), 29-50.

Brown, R. E. (1991). Restructuring educational leadership programs. *NASSP Bulletin, 75*(537), 40-45.

Bruckner, K., & Jones, L. (1990). In search of strong administrators: A worthy investment. *NASSP Bulletin, 74*(529), 20-27.

Bruner, J. S. (1957). On perceptual readiness. *Psychological Review, 64*(2), 123-152.

Buell, N. A. (1992). Building a shared vision: The principal's leadership challenge, *NASSP Bulletin, 76*(542), 88-92.

Calabrese, R. L. (1986). Effective schools and classroom instruction. *Clearing House, 59*(6), 272-274.

Cappelluti, J., & Stokes, D. (Eds.) (1991). *Middle level education: Programs, policies, and practices*. Reston, VA: National Association of Secondary School Principals.

Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development. (1989). *Turning points: Preparing American youth for the 21st century.* Carnegie Corporation.

Cawelti, G. (1988). Middle schools a better match with early adolescent needs, ASCD survey finds. *Curriculum Update,* November, 1-12.

Chance, E. W., & Grady, M. (1990). Creating and implementing a vision for the school. *NASSP Bulletin, 74*(529), 12-18.

Clark, S. N., & Clark, D. C. (1989). *School restructuring: A leadership challenge for middle level administrators*. Reston, VA: National Association of Secondary School Principals.

Clauset, K. H., & Gaynor, A. K. (1982). A systems perspective on effective schools. *Educational Leadership, 40*(3), 54-59.

Coleman, J. S., Campbell, E. Q., Hobson, C. J., McPartland, J., Mood, A. M., Weinfeld, F. D., & York, R. L. (1966). *Equality of educational opportunity.* Washington, DC: United States Government Printing Office.

Corwin, R. G., & Borman, K. M. (1988). School as workplace: Structural constraints on administration. In N. J. Boyan (Ed.), *Handbook of research on educational administration* (pp. 209-237). New York: Longman.

Creed, P. J. (1978). *Satisfaction with leader behavior: A test of selected aspects of the path-goal theory of leadership.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Alberta, Edmonton, AB.

Crowson, R. L., & Porter-Gehrie, C. (1981). The urban school principalship: An organizational stability role. *Planning and Changing, 12*(1), 26-53.

Cuban, L. (1983). Effective schools: A friendly but cautionary note. *Phi Delta Kappan, 64*(10), 695-697.

Cuban, L. (1984). Transforming the frog into a prince: Effective schools research, policy, and practice at the district level. *Harvard Educational Review, 54*(2), 129-151.

Drucker, P. F. (1992). *Managing for the future: The 1990's and beyond.* New York: Truman Talley.

Duke, D. L. (1986). The aesthetics of leadership. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 22*(1), 7-27.

Duren, O. R. (1992). A reflection of my school: One student looks at school effectiveness. *NASSP Bulletin, 76*(542), 93-96.

Dwyer, D. C. (1984). The search for instructional leadership: Routines and subtleties in the principal's role. *Educational Leadership, 49*(2), 32-37.

Eastcott, L. R., Holdaway, E. A., & Kuiken, D. (1974). Constraints upon administrative behavior. *The Canadian Administrator, 13*(8), 41-44.

Educational Research Service. (1977). *Summary of Research on Middle Schools.* New York: Author

Eichorn, D. R. (1991). Why middle schools? *NASSP Bulletin, 75*(533), 1-5.

Eisner, E. W. (1991). What really counts in schools. *Educational Leadership,* February, 10-17.

Epstein, H. T., & Toepfer, C. F. (1978). A neuroscience basis for reorganizing middle grades education. *Educational Leadership, 35*(8), 656-659.

Eubanks, E., & Levine, D. (1983). A first look at effective schools projects in New York City and Milwaukee. *Phi Delta Kappan 64*(10), 697-702.

Faidley, R., & Musser, S. (1991). National education standards: The complex challenge for educational leaders. *NASSP Bulletin, 75*(537), 23-27.

Farmer, C. H. (1979). *Administrator evaluation: Concepts, methods, cases in higher education.* Richmond, VA: Higher Education Leadership and Management Society.

Fennell, H. A. (1992). Leadership for change: Principals and power-sharing. *The Canadian Administrator, 31*(8), 1-11.

Fiedler, F. E., & Garcia, J. E. (1987). *New approaches to effective leadership.* New York: Wiley.

Fox, C. A. (1992). The critical ingredients of making change happen. *NASSP Bulletin, 76*(541), 71-77.

Frase, L. E., & Hetzel, R. (1990). *School management by wandering around.* Lancaster, PA: Technomic.

Frase, L. E., Talbert, G., & Hetzel, G. (1990). How important is the personality of the leader? *NASSP Bulletin, 68*(476), 18-23.

French, W. L., Kast, F. E., & Rosenzweig, J. E. (1985). *Understanding human behavior in organizations.* New York: Harper and Row.

Fullan, M. (1982). *The meaning of educational change.* Toronto, ON: Ontario Institute of Studies in Education.

Garvin, J. P. (1986). Common denominators in effective middle schools. *NASSP - Schools in the Middle,* March, 1-6.

Gellman, H. (1992). Learning organizations have competitive advantages. *Inside Guide, 6*(1), 9-11.

George, P. S., & Anderson, W. G. (1989). Maintaining the middle school: A national survey. *NASSP Bulletin, 73*(521), 67-74.

George, P. S., & Grebing, W. (1992). Seven essential skills of middle level leadership. *NASSP - Schools in the Middle, 1*(4), 3-11.

George, P. S. (1990). From junior high to middle school - Principal's perspectives. *NASSP Bulletin, 74*(523), 86-94.

Gill, J. (1992). Turning points: Principals' perceptions and responses in blue ribbon schools. *Schools in the Middle, 1*(3), 27-30.

Goldsborough, H. (1992). Exemplary schools project to study schools across Canada. *Newsletter: Canadian Education Association,* December.

Goodlad, J. I. (1983). *A place called school.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Goodlad, J. I. (1990). Better teachers for our nation's schools. *Phi Delta Kappan,* November, 185-194.

Grab, R. (1991). Education leaders as communicators. *Challenge in Educational Administration, 28*(2), 19-24.

Griffiths, D. E. (1988). Administrative theory. In N. J. Boyan (Ed.), *Handbook of research on educational administration* (pp. 27-50). New York: Longman.

Gunn, J. A., & Holdaway, E. A. (1986). Perceptions of effectiveness, influence, and satisfaction of senior high school principals. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 22*(2), 43-62.

Hall, G., Rutherford, W. L., Hord, S. M., & Huling, L. L. (1984). Effects of three principal styles on school improvement. *Educational Leadership, 41*(5), 22-29.

Hanke, R. (1988). *A national comparative study of principals of exemplary junior high/middle schools and principals of other junior high middle schools on selected curriculum/instructional leadership tasks.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Northwestern University, Chicago, IL.

Harper, D. C., & Holdaway, E. A. (1978). Evaluation of administrative behavior in human service organizations. *The Canadian Administrator, 17*(7), 1-5.

Harrison, M. (1987). *Diagnosing organizations: Methods, models, processes.* Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Haughey, M., & Rowley, D. (1991). Principals as change agents. *The Canadian Administrator, 30*(8), 1-12.

Hersey, P. W., & Blanchard, K. H. (1976). *Management of organizational behavior: Utilizing human resources* (2nd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Highett, N. T. (1989). *School effectiveness and ineffectiveness: Parents', principals', and superintendents' perspectives.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Alberta, Edmonton, AB.

Holdaway, E. A., & Ratsoy, E. W. (1991). Preparation of principals for their emerging role. *The Canadian Administrator, 30*(6), 1-9.

Hostetler, K. (1986). Ethics and power: Implications for the principal's leadership. *NASSP Bulletin, 70*(488), 31-36.

Houlihan, G. T. (1983). Using the right variables in measuring school effectiveness. *NASSP Bulletin, 67*(468), 9-15.

Huddle, G. (1984). How complex is the principal's job? What actions can principals take to be more effective? *NASSP Bulletin, 68*(476), 62-67.

Jackson, A. (1990). From knowledge to practice: Implementing the recommendations of "Turning Points." *Middle School Journal, 21*(3), 1-3.

Johns, G. (1987). *Organizational behavior: Understanding life at work* (2nd ed.). Glenview, IL: Scott Foresman.

Johnson, N.A. (1987). The pervasive, persuasive power of perceptions. *The Alberta Journal of Educational Research, 33*(3), 206-228.

Johnson, N.A. (1988). *Perceptions of effectiveness and principal's job satisfaction in elementary schools.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Alberta, Edmonton, AB.

Johnston, J. H., & de Perez, J. M. (1985). Four climates of effective middle schools. *NASSP - Schools in the Middle,* January, 1-8.

Kast, F., & Rosenzweig, J. (1970). *Organization and management: A systems approach.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Katz, R. L. (1975). *On management.* New York: Harper and Row.

Keefe, J. W., Jenkins, J. M., & Hersey, P. W. (1992). *A leader's guide to school restructuring.* Reston, VA: National Association of Secondary School Principals.

Keefe, J. W., Clark, D. C., Nickerson, N. C., & Valentine, J. (1983). *The middle level principalship Volume II - The effective middle level principal.* Reston, VA: National Association of Secondary School Principals.

Keeler, B. T. (1961). *Dimensions of the leader behavior of principals, staff morale, and productivity.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Alberta, Edmonton, AB.

Kidder, L. H. (1981). *Research methods in social relations*(4th ed.). New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston.

Knoop, R., & Wagner, J. (1986). Alternant leadership: Increasing school effectiveness. *The Canadian Administrator, 25*(4), 2-6.

Koerner, T. F. (1989). Reform plans and implications for principals discussed by Chairman of task force on middle grade students. *National Association of Secondary School Principals, 73*(518), 64-75.

Koerner, T. F. (1991). *John W. Gardner on leadership.* Reston, VA: National Association of Secondary School Principals.

Kouzes, J. M., & Posner, B. Z. (1990). *The leadership challenge.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Kozlov, A. (1988). Aristotle in the fast lane. *Discovery, 9*(7), 77-78.

Lambert, L. G. (1988). Building school culture: An open letter to principals. *NASSP Bulletin, 72*(507), 54-62.

Lane, B. A. (1992). Cultural leaders in effective schools: The builders and brokers of excellence. *NASSP Bulletin, 76*(541), 85-96.

Lavery, R. E. (1973). *Principal leadership style and school effectiveness in English and French elementary schools.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Alberta, Edmonton, AB.

Lawton, E. J. (1992). The evolution of a middle level school: Twenty years of effort. *Schools in the Middle, 2*(2), 30-33.

Leithwood, K. A., & Montgomery, D. J. (1986). *Improving principal effectiveness: The principal profile.* Toronto, ON: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.

LePage, A. (1987). *Transforming education: The new 3 R's.* Oakland, CA: Oakmore House Press.

Levine, M. (1985). Excellent companies and exemplary schools: Common goals, characteristics. *NASSP Bulletin, 69*(477), 56-70.

Lincoln, Y., & Guba, E. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry.* Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Lipham, J. A. (1981). *Effective principal, effective school.* Reston, VA: National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1988.

Lounsbury, J. H. (Ed.) (1984). *Perspective: Middle school education*, 1964-1984. Columbus, OH: National Middle School Association.

Lounsbury, J. H. (1990). Middle level schools - Once around the elephant. *NASSP - Schools in the Middle,* May, 1-6.

Lyons, J. E. (1990). Managing stress in the principalship. *NASSP Bulletin, 74*(523), 44-45.

MacIver, D. (1990). Meeting the needs of young adolescents: Advisory groups, interdisciplinary teaching teams, and school transition programs. *Phi Delta Kappan, 71*(6), 464-477.

Manasse, A. L. (1985). Improving conditions for principal effectiveness: Policy implications of research. *The Elementary School Journal, 85*(3), 439-463.

Manitoba Education and Training (1992). *Implementation of the high school review.* Winnipeg, MB: Author.

Martin, W., & Willower, P. (1981). The managerial behavior of high school principals. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 17,* 69-90.

Maynard, G. (1986). The reality of diversity at the middle level. *The Clearing House, 60*(9), 21-23.

McCormack-Larkin, M., & Kritek, W. J. (1982). Milwaukee's project RISE. *Educational Leadership, 40*(3), 16-21.

McEvoy, B. (1987). Everyday acts: How principals influence development of their staffs. *Educational Leadership, 42*(2), 73-77.

McIntosh, B. (1991). *Grade organization for future neighborhoods.* Report to Trustee Education Committee, January 8. Edmonton, AB: Author.

McNamara, V. D. (1968). *The principal's personal leadership style, the school staff learning situations, and school effectiveness.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Alberta, Edmonton, AB.

Miklos, E. (1983). Alternative images of the administrator. *The Canadian Administrator, 22*(7), 1-6.

Miklos, E. (1990). *Evolution in doctoral research in Educational Administration at the University of Alberta, 1958-1990.* Edmonton, AB: Department of Educational Administration, University of Alberta.

Miller, A. F., & Hanson, M. (1992). The smile on the face of a leadership tiger. *Inside Guide, 6*(1), 14-17.

Mintzberg, H. (1973). *The nature of managerial work.* New York: Harper and Row.

Mitchell, D. E., & Tucker, S. (1992). Leadership as a way of thinking. *Educational Leadership, 49*(5), 30-35.

Morris, V. C., Crowson, R. L., Hurwitz, E., & Porter-Gehrie, C. (1982). The urban principal: Middle manager in the educational bureaucracy. *Phi Delta Kappan, 63*(10), 689-692.

Mosher, R. L. (1980). A Janus knot: Adolescent development and education. *McGill Journal of Education, 15*(2), 213-222.

Mulhauser, F. K. (1982). *Recent research on the principalship: A view from the National Institute of Education.* Paper presented at the International School Improvement Project meeting, West Palm Beach, FA.

Murphy, J. M. (1987). Barriers to implementing the instructional leadership role. *The Canadian Administrator, 27*(3), 1-9.

Murphy, J. M., & Hallinger, P. (1985). Effective high schools: What are the common characteristics? *NASSP Bulletin, 69*(477), 18-22.

Murphy, J. M., Hallinger, P., & Peterson, K. D. (1985). Supervising and evaluating principals: Lessons from effective school districts. *Educational Leadership, 35*(2), 79-82.

Norris, C. (1990). Developing visionary leaders for tomorrow's schools. *NASSP Bulletin, 74*(526), 6-11.

Orlich, D. (1989). *Staff development: Enhancing human potential.* Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Ovard, G. F. (1990). Leadership: Maintaining vision in a complex arena. *NASSP Bulletin, 74*(523), 1-7.

Pellicer, L. O., Anderson, L. W., Keefe, J. W., Kelley, E. A., & McCleary, L. E. (1988). *High school leaders and their schools, Volume 1: A national profile.* Reston, VA: National Association of Secondary School Principals.

Peters, T. J., & R. H. Waterman (1982). *In search of excellence.* New York: Harper and Row.

Pitner, N. J., & Hocevar, D. (1987). An empirical comparison of two factor versus multifactor theories of principal leadership: Implications for evaluation of school principals. *Journal of Personnel Evaluation in Education, 1,* 93-109.

Purkey, S. C., & Smith, M. S. (1982). Too soon to cheer? Synthesis on research on effective schools. *Educational Leadership, 40*(3), 64-69.

Purkey, S. C., & Smith, M. S. (1983). Effective schools: A review. *The Elementary School Journal, 83*(4), 427-452.

Quattrone, D. F. (1990). Carnegie's middle school ideals: Phases of program development. *Journal of Curriculum and Instruction, 6*(1), 52-61.

Radwanski, G. (1988). *Ontario study of the relevance of education.* Toronto, ON: Ministry of Education.

Ralph, J., & Fennessey, J. (1983). Science or reform: Some questions about the effective schools model. *Phi Delta Kappan, 64*(10), 689-694.

Ratsoy, E. W. (1983). Assessing effectiveness in educational organizations. *The Canadian Administrator, 23*(3), 1-6.

Renihan, F. I., & Renihan, P. J. (1984). Effective schools, effective administration, and institutional image. *The Canadian Administrator, 24*(3), 1-6.

Richardson, S., Wynne, H., & Miklos, E. (Eds.) (1988). *Paradigms and paradigm shifts in educational administration.* Edmonton, AB: Department of Educational Administration, University of Alberta.

Rowan, B., Bossert, S. T., & Dwyer, D. C. (1983). Research on effective schools. *Educational Researcher, 12*(4), 24-31.

Rutter, M., Maughan, B., Mortimore, P., Ouston, J., & Smith, A. (1979). *Fifteen thousand hours.* London: Open Books.

Sagor, R. D. (1992). Three principals who make a difference. *Educational Leadership, 49*(5), 13-18.

Sergiovanni, T. J. (1982). Ten principles of quality leadership. *Educational Leadership, 39*(5), 330-336.

Sergiovanni, T. J., & Corbally, J. E. (Eds.) (1984). *Leadership and organizational culture: New perspectives on administrative theory and practice.* Urbana, IL: University of Illinois Press.

Sergiovanni, T. J. (1984). Leadership and excellence in schooling. *Educational Leadership, 41*(5), 4-13.

Sergiovanni, T. J. (1989). Mystics, neats, and scruffies: Informing professional practice in educational administration. *Journal of Educational Administration, 27*(2), 7-21.

Sergiovanni, T. J. (1990). *Value-added leadership: How to get extraordinary performance in schools.* Orlando, FA: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Shaver, K. (1981). *Principles of social psychology* (2nd ed.). Cambridge, MA: Winthrop.

Smith, S. C., & Piele, P. K. (1989). *School leadership: Handbook for excellence.* Eugene, OR: ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management.

Smith, S. C., & Scott, J. J. (1990). *The collaborative school.* Reston, VA: National Association of Secondary School Principals.

Sroypan, S. (1988). *Perceptions of effectiveness and principals' job satisfaction in junior high schools.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Alberta, Edmonton, AB.

Steers, R. M. (1977). *Organizational effectiveness: A behavioral view.* Santa Monica, CA: Goodyear.

Stephens, D. M. (1991). Transition from junior high to middle school: A principal's perspective on reorganization. *NASSP - Schools in the Middle, 1*(1), 17-22.

Sweeney, J. (1986). Research synthesis on effective school leadership. *Educational Leadership, 39*(5), 346-352.

Terry, G. (1960). *Principles of management* (3rd ed.). Homewood, IL: Irwin.

Thomas, C., & Vornberg, J. A. (1991). Evaluating principals: New requirements, directions for the 90's. *NASSP Bulletin, 75*(539), 59-64.

Toepfer, C. F. (1990). Middle level school grades and program development. *NASSP - Schools in the Middle,* April, 1-4.

United States Department of Education, (1983). *Nation at risk: The imperative for reform.* Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Urquhart, M. A. (1985). *Coping with junior high guidance.* Toronto, ON: University of Toronto.

Valentine, J., Clark, D. C., Nickerson, N. C., & Keefe, J. W. (1981). *The middle level principalship: Volume 1: A survey of middle level principals and programs.* Reston, VA: National Association of Secondary School Principals.

Valentine, J. W., & Bowman, M. L. (1991). Effective principal, effective school. *NASSP Bulletin, 75*(539), 1-7.

Vatterott, C. (1991). Assessing school climate in the middle level school. *Schools in the Middle, 2*(3), 1-7.

Walberg, H. J., & Lane, J. J. (Eds.) (1989). *Organizing for learning: Toward the 21st century.* Reston, VA: National Association of Secondary School Principals.

Williamson, D. (1992, March 30). It's time for educators to admit middle schools just don't work. *Salt Lake Tribune*, p. A-11.

Williamson, R. (1991). In J. Cappelluti & D. Stokes (Eds.), *Middle level education: Programs, policies, and practices* (pp. 36-41). Reston, VA: National Association of Secondary School Principals.

Williamson, R., & Johnston, J. H. (1991). *Planning for success: Successful implementation of middle level reorganization.* Reston, VA: National Association of Secondary School Principals.

Wilmore, E. L. (1992). The "affective" middle level school: Keys to a nurturing school climate. *NASSP - Schools in the Middle, 1*(4), 31-34.

Yukl, G. A. (1981). *Leadership in organizations.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

APPENDIX A

Questionnaire for Principals

QUESTIONNAIRE

(Please circle the number of the appropriate response.)

CC 1-4

1. Sex: 1. Female 2. Male — 5

2. Age: 1. 25 or younger; 2. 26-30; 3. 31-35; 4. 36-40; 5. 41-45; 6. 46-50; 7. 51-55; 8. 56 or older — 6

3. For how many years have you served <u>as a principal</u>, including this school year?
   1. 1 year; 2. 2-3; 3. 4-6; 4. 7-9; 5. 10-12; 6. 13-15; 7. 16-18; 8. 19-21; 9. 22-24; 10. 25 or more — 7-8

4. For how many years have you served as <u>principal of this school</u>, including this school year?
   1. 1 year; 2. 2-3; 3. 4-6; 4. 7-9; 5. 10-12; 6. 13-15; 7. 16-18; 8. 19-21; 9. 22-24; 10. 25 or more — 9-10

5. For how many years has this school been in operation, including this school year?
   1. 1 year; 2. 2-3; 3. 4-6; 4. 7-9; 5. 10-12; 6. 13-15; 7. 16-18; 8. 19-21; 9. 22-24; 10. 25 or more — 11-12

6. What is the highest qualification you have earned?
   1. B.Ed.
   2. Diploma (after B.Ed.)
   3. Master's Degree (In_____)
   4. Doctoral Degree (In_____) — 13

7. In which type of school system are you currently serving as principal?
   1. Public; 2. Catholic Separate; 3. Protestant Separate; 4. County; 5. Division; 6. Other:_____ — 14

8. In which type of community is your school located?
   1. Large urban
   2. Small urban (or suburban)
   3. Rural (county or municipality) — 15

9. How many students are enrolled in your school for the current term?
   1. 199 or fewer; 2. 200-299; 3. 300-399; 4. 400-499; 5. 500-599; 6. 600-699; 7. 700 or more — 16

2

10. Several factors are listed below which could be considered as constraints that **prevent PRINCIPALS from being as effective as they could be in an ideal situation.** Please indicate the extent to which each factor has been a constraint to **YOU IN YOUR ROLE AS PRINCIPAL.** (Circle the number which represents your response.)

- **Not** at all a constraint (N)
- **Somewhat** important constraint (S)
- **Moderately** important constraint (M)
- **Very** important constraint (V)
- **Highly** important constraint (H)

FACTOR	CONSTRAINTS ON YOUR PRINCIPALSHIP N	S	M	V	H	CC
(a) Provincial requirements/regulations	0	1	2	3	4	17
(b) Policies of your school system	0	1	2	3	4	18
(c) Inadequate funding	0	1	2	3	4	19
(d) Insufficient space	0	1	2	3	4	20
(e) Inadequate physical facilities	0	1	2	3	4	21
(f) Lack of support from system supervisor	0	1	2	3	4	22
(g) Amount of time required for administration (management tasks, details)	0	1	2	3	4	23
(h) Lack of flexibility in applying school system policies	0	1	2	3	4	24
(i) Lack of opportunity to select staff	0	1	2	3	4	25
(j) Your teaching load	0	1	2	3	4	26
(k) Ineffective communication from central office staff to your school	0	1	2	3	4	27
(l) Lack of time for planning	0	1	2	3	4	28
(m) Lack of time for administering student activities	0	1	2	3	4	29
(n) Lack of time for your professional growth	0	1	2	3	4	30
(o) Time taken in dealing with problem students	0	1	2	3	4	31
(p) Pressures from the community	0	1	2	3	4	32
(q) Lack of parental support	0	1	2	3	4	33
(r) Resistance to change by staff	0	1	2	3	4	34
(s) Too many students	0	1	2	3	4	35
(t) Too few students	0	1	2	3	4	36
(u) Lack of staff mobility	0	1	2	3	4	37
(v) Variations in teaching ability of certificated staff	0	1	2	3	4	38
(w) Variations in ability of support staff	0	1	2	3	4	39
(x) Lack of time for supervising staff	0	1	2	3	4	40
(y) Other (please specify below)						
	0	1	2	3	4	
	0	1	2	3	4	
	0	1	2	3	4	

3

11. Several factors are listed below which could be considered as constraints which **prevent SCHOOLS from being as effective as they could be in an ideal situation.** Please indicate the extent to which you consider that each factor has been a constraint in **YOUR SCHOOL**. (Circle the number which represents your response.)

- **Not** at all a constraint (N)
- **Somewhat** important constraint (S)
- **Moderately** important constraint (M)
- **Very** important constraint (V)
- **Highly** important constraint (H)

FACTOR	CONSTRAINTS ON YOUR SCHOOL N	S	M	V	H	CC
(a) Size of your school system (district, division, county)	0	1	2	3	4	41
(b) Complexity of your school system	0	1	2	3	4	42
(c) Overall goals of your school system	0	1	2	3	4	43
(d) Overall policies of your school system	0	1	2	3	4	44
(e) Government legislation/regulations	0	1	2	3	4	45
(f) Role of educational organizations in society	0	1	2	3	4	46
(g) Routineness of procedures (timetabling, testing requirements, legislation)	0	1	2	3	4	47
(h) Degree of bureaucratization	0	1	2	3	4	48
(i) Composition of your staff (skill, knowledge, experience)	0	1	2	3	4	49
(j) Stage in the life cycle of your school (start-up, established, declining)	0	1	2	3	4	50
(k) Financial support provided by your system	0	1	2	3	4	51
(l) Financial support provided by the province	0	1	2	3	4	52
(m) Over-emphasis on technology in school	0	1	2	3	4	53
(n) Tendency of school system to maintain status quo	0	1	2	3	4	54
(o) Ineffective leadership within your school system	0	1	2	3	4	55
(p) Ineffective educational leadership within the province	0	1	2	3	4	56
(q) Your degree of control over budgetary matters	0	1	2	3	4	57
(r) Lack of staff turnover in your school	0	1	2	3	4	58
(s) Too much staff turnover in your school	0	1	2	3	4	59
(t) Existence of grade-level tests for curricular areas	0	1	2	3	4	60
(u) Lack of financial support for staff professional development	0	1	2	3	4	61
(v) Amount of time per day spent on core subjects	0	1	2	3	4	62
(w) Other (please specify below)						
	0	1	2	3	4	
	0	1	2	3	4	
	0	1	2	3	4	

12. Please provide comments that you wish to make about any of the matters addressed above.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION.

APPENDIX B

Interview Schedule for Principals

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

1. Name of School: _____

2. Name of Principal: _____

3. Sex: ☐ Female ☐ Male

4. Age:
   1. 25 or younger
   2. 26 - 30
   3. 31 - 35
   4. 36 - 40
   5. 41 - 45
   6. 46 - 50
   7. 51 - 55
   8. older than 55

5. For how many years have you served **as a principal**, including this school year?
   1. 1 year
   2. 2 - 3
   3. 4 - 6
   4. 7 - 9
   5. 10-12
   6. 13 - 15
   7. 16 - 18
   8. 19 - 21
   9. 22 - 24
   10. 25 or more

6. For how many years have you served as a **principal in this school**, including this school year?
   1. 1 year
   2. 2 - 3
   3. 4 - 6
   4. 7 - 9
   5. 10-12
   6. 13 - 15
   7. 16 - 18
   8. 19 - 21
   9. 22 - 24
   10. 25 or more

7. What is the highest qualification you have earned?
   1. B. Ed.
   2. Diploma (after B.Ed.)
   3. Master's Degree (In _____)
   4. Doctoral Degree (In _____)

8. Which of the following categories describes the school system where you are currently serving as principal?
   1. Public District
   2. Catholic Separate District
   3. Protestant Separate District
   4. County
   5. Other (please specify): _____

9. In which type of district is your school located?
   1. Large urban
   2. Small urban (or suburban)
   3. Rural (county or municipality)

10. How many students are enrolled in your school for the current term?
    1. 199 or fewer
    2. 200 - 299
    3. 300 - 399
    4. 400 - 499
    5. 500 - 599
    6. 600 - 699
    7. 700 or more

11. (a) What **specific goals or priorities** have you identified for the current year for your school?

(b) Why did you select these goals or priorities?

12. (a) What do you consider to be the **most important criteria** for judging the effectiveness of your school? (List in order of importance from #i to #iii with #i being of highest importance.)

(i)

(ii)

(iii)

(b) Why do you consider these to be the most important?

13. (a) What do you consider to be the **most important criteria** for judging your effectiveness as a school leader? (List in order of importance from #i to #iii with #i being of highest importance.)

(i) _____

_____

(ii) _____

_____

(iii) _____

_____

(b) Why did you identify these criteria?

_____

_____

_____

_____

14. (a) What **constraints or barriers** do you believe you will need to overcome in order to achieve these goals?

_____

_____

_____

(b) Why do you identify these as the most critical?

_____

_____

_____

_____

15. (a) What are the 3 most relevant strategies for reducing the impact of constraints upon the **effectiveness of your school?** (List from #i to #iii in order or importance with #i being of highest importance.)

(i) _____

_____

(ii) _____

_____

(iii) _____

_____

(b) Why did you identify these strategies?

_____

_____

_____

_____

16. (a) What are the 3 most relevant strategies for reducing the impact of constraints upon **your effectiveness as the principal?** (List in order of importance from #i to #iii with #i being of highest importance.)

(i) _____

_____

(ii) _____

_____

(iii) _____

_____

(b) Why did you select these strategies?

_____

_____

_____

_____

17. Please provide one illustration of a plan designed to achieve one of your priorities, the related constraints, and the outcomes?

18. What other comments do you have on this general topic?

APPENDIX C

Cover Letter--Questionnaire

RESPONSE FORM

Respondent Number _____

Please check one of the following responses concerning the questionnaire on constraints affecting junior high principals and schools in Alberta.

☐ I **have** completed and mailed the questionnaire and response form.

☐ I will **not** complete the questionnaire.

THANK YOU VERY MUCH.

Donna Smith
10711 - 48 Street
Edmonton, Alberta, T6A 2B6

(Bus: 444-4946; Res: 468-0070)

10711 - 48 Street,
Edmonton, Alberta, T6A 2B6.

January 19, 1992

Dear

I am writing to request your assistance in completing the enclosed brief questionnaire for principals. The purpose of my study is to learn more about principals' perceptions of effectiveness in junior high schools in Alberta. The questions relate to constraints upon (a) the effectiveness of your school and (b) your own effectiveness as principal.

In addition to the questionnaire, I will interview a small number of principals in order to obtain more detailed information about issues related to constraints upon effectiveness. The results of this study will be used for my doctoral dissertation. I have received ethics clearance and obtained the approval of my advisory committee from the Department of Educational Administration at the University of Alberta in Edmonton.

Please complete the questionnaire by **February 5, 1992** and return it in the enclosed stamped envelope. Then complete and return the numbered sheet as a separate mail item in the white envelope. This will indicate to me that you have returned the questionnaire without knowing which questionnaire is yours, so all responses will be anonymous.

A brief report of the results of my study will be provided to all respondents. If you have any questions related to this questionnaire, please feel free to contact me at school (444-4946) or home (468-0070).

Your cooperation in this study is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Donna Smith,
(Principal, S. Bruce Smith School, Edmonton
and Doctoral Student, Department of Educational Administration)

APPENDIX D

Cover Letter--Interview

10711 - 48 Street,
Edmonton, Alberta, T6A 2B6.

February 10, 1992

Mr.
Principal,
School.

Dear Mr.

Thank you for agreeing to be interviewed for my study of principals' perceptions related to school and leadership effectiveness. All responses will be treated as **strictly confidential** and will allow for exploration of some of the findings from the questionnaire distributed to all junior high principals in January, 1992.

I wish to confirm the following details related to our interview:

DATE: _____ **TIME:** _____

As you know, I would like to spend time visiting the school after the interview as well to become more aware of your school setting and to discuss matters of mutual interest.

If you have any questions in this regard, please do not hesitate to contact me (Bus: 444-4946; Res: 468-0070).

Sincerely,

Donna Smith,
(Principal, S. Bruce Smith School, Edmonton
and Doctoral Student, Department of Educational Administration)

APPENDIX E

Follow-Up Letter--Questionnaire

10711 - 48 Street,
Edmonton, Alberta, T6A 2B6.

March 4, 1992

Mr.
Principal,
School.

Dear Mr.

On January 17, 1992, I mailed you a questionnaire concerning principals' perceptions of constraints upon school and leadership effectiveness, together with a stamped return envelope and a separate response form. I have not yet received your response form to indicate that you have completed the questionnaire.

If you have not already done so, I would be very grateful if you would take a few minutes to complete and forward the questionnaire. A high rate of return will enhance the comprehensiveness of the research. It would also be helpful if you would complete the enclosed response form and mail it separately.

Please inform me if you need another copy of the questionnaire and a return envelope (Bus: 444-4946; Res: 468-0070).

Your assistance in this matter is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Donna Smith,
(Principal, S. Bruce Smith School, Edmonton
and Doctoral Student, Department of Educational Administration)

APPENDIX F

Correspondence

10711 - 48 Street,
Edmonton, Alberta, T6A 2B6.

February 6, 1993

Canadian Education Association,
252 Bloor Street West,
Toronto, Ontario, M5S 1V5

To Whom It May Concern:

Re: Organization of Schools by Grade

I am currently conducting a research study of junior high schools in Alberta for my doctoral program with the intent of examining constraints on effective operation and leadership. I have restricted my focus to schools which have grades 7, 8, and 9; this includes the majority of junior high or middle schools in our province.

As background for this research, I would like to provide an overview of the organization of junior high or middle schools throughout Canada. For example, I understand that Manitoba has reorganized schools to include programs from Kindergarten to grade 8 in one site and programs from grades 9 to 12 in another site.

I would appreciate receiving any recent information you have regarding organization of schools across Canada, the rationale for various formats, and other pertinent information related to this topic. If you require further clarification of this request, please do not hesitate to contact me (Bus: 403-444-4946; Res: 403-468-0070).

Thank you very much for your assistance.

Most sincerely yours,

Donna Smith, Principal,
S. Bruce Smith School.

10711 - 48 Street,
Edmonton, Alberta, T6A 2B6.

February 6, 1993

Director of Research,
Department of Education,
Winnipeg, Manitoba, R3C 0V8.

To Whom It May Concern:

Re: Organization of Schools by Grade

I am currently conducting a research study of junior high schools in Alberta for my doctoral program with the intent of examining constraints on effective operation and leadership. I have restricted my focus to schools which have grades 7, 8, and 9; this includes the majority of junior high or middle schools in our province.

As background for this research, I would like to provide an overview of the organization of junior high schools in Canada. I understand that your province has recently implemented plans for a reorganization of schools which would allow for elementary schools which have programs for students in Kindergarten to grade 8 and high schools for students in grades 9 to 12. This effectively eliminates the traditional "junior high" or "middle school."

I would appreciate receiving any recent research information you have regarding this new organization of schools in your province, the rationale for this new format, and any other pertinent information related to this topic. If you require further clarification of this request, please do not hesitate to contact me (Bus: 403-444-4946; Res: 468-0070).

Thank you very much for your assistance.

Most sincerely yours,

Donna Smith, Principal,
S. Bruce Smith School.